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TIONALISM IN ITALIAN EDUCATION

By

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". . . . Our educational reforms which are inspired by the teachings of modern idealistic philosophy demand that the school be animated and vivified by the spiritual breath of the fatherland."

—GIOVANNI GENTILE.

17399

THIS STUDY IS INSCRIBED

TO

JOHN LAWRENCE GERIG

IN RECOGNITION OF HIS SERVICES

TO ITALIAN CULTURE IN AMERICA

NATIONALISM IN ITALIAN EDUCATION

FOREWORD

The new and strong interest taken by so many Americans in Italy and her people is a good omen. Italian civilization, when founded as it is on the solid rock of ancient Roman culture, and that again on all that was best and finest in ancient Greece, is of compelling significance to the modern world.

The subtle and unbroken interrelationship of law and letters, the fine arts and science, in Italian culture is one of the glories of European history. To come to know a historic culture such as that which Italy enjoys is to gain new insight into the true meaning of civilization and a fuller comprehension of it. We Americans often forget that old and well established as the principles of our political and social thinking seem to be, they are young indeed when compared with the principles which condition the political and social thinking of the Italian people. In particular, our nation with strong and splendid Anglo-Saxon traditions and inheritances, has much to learn from those peoples whose culture is essentially Latin in origin.

France and her culture long ago conquered the American mind and the American heart. The time has fully come when Italy may do the same. The charm of her language, the wisdom and the depth of her philosophy, the beauty of her achievements in every field of the fine arts, and her new and vigorous national self-consciousness are all invitations to study Italy, her people, her language, her literature and her institutional life.

The present volume is a serious and scholarly study of one interesting and important aspect of that life and as such is cordially commended to the serious-minded American reader.

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.

Columbia University,
February 18, 1927.

PREFACE

The following study endeavors to present and discuss the general tendencies and principles of the present system of education in Italy. Since education is essentially a public policy which is closely related to the economic, social, and political conditions of a country, the statesman who proposes to build an efficient, prosperous, and patriotic nation must enlist the co-operation of the schools in his efforts and utilize them to effect his aims. It is this spirit of nationalism that is predominant in the recent reforms of education in Italy.

The main benefit to be derived from a study of a foreign educational system is that it should make us more conscious of the strong and weak points, and the places that still need improvement in our own system. Although the solution of one country can never be bodily adopted by another, an exchange of experiences in education as in other scientific and intellectual fields is of great benefit for the reason that ideas, practices, devices, etc. developed under certain conditions can always prove suggestive for improvements even where the conditions are different.

In the preparation of the present study, I have derived ideas and information from every available source. The account given is necessarily brief and elementary, especially with reference to the general factors that surround and influence education. While I have tried to be fair, I cannot be sure that I have always chosen the most felicitous examples. It is hoped, however, that the study is accurate as far as it goes, and, above all, unprejudiced and candid. I have endeavoured to avoid mistakes by procuring criticism, but I alone am responsible for the position taken in matters of opinion, and for such errors of fact as still remain.

It is a pleasure to make grateful acknowledgment of the material help received from the International Institute of Teachers College in placing the use of its library at my disposal. I also wish to express my sincere appreciation to Professor Dino Bigongiari of Columbia University for encouragement and assistance received in the preparation of this study. To Professor Isaacs

Kandel of Teachers College, Columbia University, I am under great obligation for advice and criticism. I am also under obligation to Dr. L. W. Hackett and Dr. Alan Gregg for sending me from Italy official documents, reports and other literature which I was unable to secure in this country.

Finally I wish to make grateful acknowledgment for assistance received during the preparation of this study from Miss M. R. Boulger who has read and criticized certain sections of the manuscript, and to my wife, Mrs. Helen G. Marraro, for assistance in assembling this literature.

The bibliography which appears at the end of this study does not pretend to be complete. I have purposely limited the list of references to the most significant articles.

Howard R. Marraro.

Columbia University,
January 25, 1927.

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INTRODUCTION

The educational reform enacted in Italy in 1923 by Giovanni Gentile, then Minister of Public Instruction, does not reveal its full import and significance if considered merely as the solution of a technical problem in pedagogy, or as the substitution, be it ever so radical, of adequate school ordinances for inadequate ones. To comprehend fully its nature we must regard it as the expression of the new cultural and spiritual trend of Italy, as something that betokens a complete transformation of ideals in the life of the Italian people, and attests the predominance of that new ethical and cultural consciousness which, shaping itself since the beginning of the century and at first fully grasped only by a few, has nevertheless from the start won over the hearts of many, especially among the younger generation. Gentile himself, the author of the reform, was one of the master minds of this spiritual regeneration. For twenty years, pitilessly arraigning all the antiquated ideologies that were warping the mind and character of Italians, he taught his countrymen with unwavering ardor and perseverance, that their new path to progress must be made to proceed from the genuine Italian tradition as it had developed from the Renaissance to the Risorgimento.

In the second half of the Nineteenth Century and in the first years of the Twentieth Century, a dull and deadening positivistic mentality, barely relieved here and there by trite and declamatory ideologies, smacking for the most part of the Enlightenment, had fostered a mode of thinking that, being thoroughly skeptical, was inevitably materialistic, petty, and utilitarian. Vague ideals of liberty and equality interpreted in a most vacuous and one-sided manner, were degenerating into the dull selfishness of unintelligent and anarchistic individualism. The political aspect of this mental education was democratic liberalism and state-absenteeism, and the plagues of parliamentarism and free masonry. The socialistic doctrine itself, which had previously fired entire generations of young men, now emptied of its ideal content, was fast becoming a dead letter.

This situation was reflected in the educational conditions of the country. Under the banner of "non-confessional teaching" and of

"liberty of conscience," a school system had been fostered that was singularly devoid of a deeply religious, national and human ideal. Teaching, which aspired to be neutral and agnostic, inevitably turned out to be soulless and disoriented—a shop of stereotyped notions, of cold, lifeless information that pompously styled itself *objective,* objective meaning or implying the complete renunciation on the part of the school of any endeavor to influence the spiritual life of the learner for fear that it might, directly or indirectly, limit his individual freedom. Knowledge, therefore, was being debased to mere instrumentality, to abstract erudition, to the mechanical storing up of facts for future use. The most characteristic example of this kind of teaching was the well-known *School Manual,* a book in which all the knowable universe was boiled down to a thick formulary of dates, names and figures, to be memorized, and then forgotten, as soon as the examination was over. The cultural ideal of the age was a sort of encyclopedism with misguided and exorbitant emphasis on scientific and technical training, and in general with an overstress on every kind of instruction that *might be of use for something* instead of merely helping to form the intellectual life of the pupil.

Since the purpose of education was to furnish mere instruments for future practical use, it was inevitable that the tool most insistently demanded by parents and at all costs sought after by the pupils themselves should turn out to be the school certificate. The possession of this document came to be the immediate and practical goal of education. As a result, the process of degeneration was accelerated from day to day, diplomas were being more and more showered upon the undeserving, and the task of shaping intellectual life and character was coming to be less and less considered. Teaching, thus diverted from the formation of ideals, fast became a school for skepticism and utilitarianism that was sending forth into life pupils preoccupied solely with the solution of their immediate economic problems.

The first unmistakable signs of a profound transformation appeared in the early years of the Twentieth Century, when in the *Critica,* an historical, philosophic, and literary review, a systematic attack began to be waged against the old culture and mentality by the two men who had taken upon themselves the task of this spiritual renovation. I mean: Benedetto Croce and Giovanni Gentile.

Under the piercing thrusts of Croce, the numerous ideological bents and biases that by mental sloth had been promoted to the rank of undisputed axioms, wavered and fell; historical and literary criticism became aware of their peculiar methods and ends; and the earnest, unbiased ideality of culture appeared embodied in the life and personality of the great Master. In the works of Gentile, on the other hand, the blows against the old mentality were dealt along the lines of purely speculative philosophy, and their efficacy, therefore, if at first less noticeable, was destined in the long run to be even more important and far reaching. His destructive criticism revealed itself more and more as the expression of a new mental outlook on life, and the zeal for reconstruction that resulted from it passed on from the more restricted sphere of philosophical pursuits to every field of culture and of national life.

Gentile, who has the soul of the teacher, was naturally attracted by education and by the problems of pedagogy. As a secondary school instructor first, and then a university professor, he always lived in the school and for the school. He had the opportunity, therefore, of testing his rigorous speculations by the concrete experience of one who—as he himself put it in a famous discourse—"with eyes open and a soul ablaze with faith had ever remained in spiritual communion with pupils and teachers, observing, studying, thinking, intensely and firmly." Educational problems, therefore, soon received Gentile's attention, and his many writings and lectures early aroused both keen opposition and enthusiastic endorsements.

In 1907, at the National Congress of the Secondary School Teachers' Federation, he read a report on the subject of lay teaching in which he stated that *lay* must mean not *agnostic* or *neutral,* but *religious;* and advocated the necessity of introducing the teachings of the Catholic Church into the elementary schools of Italy. In 1913, he published a *Summary of Pedagogy as a Philosophical Science,* in which he broadly outlined that philosophical system of *actual idealism* which later found its complete expression in his *General Theory of Mind as Pure Act,* and in his *System of Logic as Theory of Knowing.* In his *Summary of Pedagogy* his philosophic system appeared under the aspect of a

final critique of the old science, of the old methods, of the old atheistic, materialistic and skeptical teaching, and demonstrated the necessity of a school permeated by a renewed animating spirit. Herein were the ideal premises of the reform of 1923.

Immediately after the World War, and with redoubled zeal, Gentile resumed his campaign for educational reforms. In a little volume published in 1917 under the title of *Post-War Educational Problems,* he reprinted two open letters addressed to the Minister of Public Instruction, in which he exposed the more serious shortcomings of the school system. In 1920 when Benedetto Croce was Minister of Public Instruction in the last Giolitti cabinet, an initial attempt was made to carry out the measures long advocated by Gentile, but the political confusion then rapidly approaching a crisis put an end of this first experiment. It was only in 1922, after the Fascist Revolution had marked the first political affirmation of the renewed Italian spirit, that Gentile himself as Minister of Public Instruction in the first Mussolini cabinet was able to perfect and carry through in its systematized completeness that reform which he had prepared with such faith, and had so confidently advocated.

The formative principle of this reform is the concept of freedom. Whether we view it in its entirety and in its more general aspects, or whether we examine it in its minutest details, it reveals everywhere a constant and all engrossing aspiration for freedom. A freedom, however, that is not the one-time negative and abstract liberty demanding, in homage to the personality of the pupil, that education be extrinsic and that it ignore everything that constitutes the inwardness and therefore the effective reality of the pupil's consciousness. No! The freedom which is at the basis of Gentile's reform is something quite essential to the formation of consciousness itself, and implies the demand of a preparation and a guidance toward the solution of those fundamental problems of spiritual life which instead of being waived aside, obscured, or belittled, must be raised from their insignificant position to the important rank that is due to them. So conceived, the school cannot limit itself to the imparting of mere information and to the furnishing of cultural instruments. It must proceed to mould and fashion souls, to prepare men for

the unforeseen ways of life. At the light of this beacon, of this ultimate goal towards which the school should strive if it is to be really a Maker of personalities, we can better discern and comprehend all the fundamental points of the reform which I will now proceed to pass in rapid review, beginning with the primary school and ending with the university.

The elementary school destined for the vast majority of the people, and the sole training for most of them, has now been made an end to itself. As such it strives to impart to the children of the people an education that, though simple and limited, is also complete and organic. The new elementary school goes beyond the narrow preoccupation of teaching the three R's, and therefore of furnishing merely useful instruments which may be of much, little, or no service at all. It now aspires toward a more profoundly human task: viz., to uplift immature and untrained minds to the realization of the all important problems of the moral world; to make the children within the limitation of their years, feel and enjoy the ideal values of reality; in short, to widen their spiritual horizon, so that they may more confidently and consciously orient themselves in the world in which they must live. In order to bring about this end and to give our elementary school a new spiritual countenance, religious instruction has been introduced, and artistic training has been pushed to the fore. For religion and art are the two sources from which the new school of the people must draw its nourishment.

The introduction of religious teaching into the elementary school should, however, in no way be interpreted as implying on the part of Gentile an intention of either direct or indirect confessionalism, nor should it lead anyone to the erroneous belief that such religious instruction is in striking contradiction to that concept of freedom and of self-formation which was described as fundamental to the entire reform. Had this been the intention of the legislator, the imparting of religious teaching would not have been restricted to the elementary schools, but would have been extended to secondary instruction, and to the universities as well. The fact that it is thus limited indicates clearly that its purpose is to develop in the child from the very first awakening of consciousness, a sense of the divine, of the eternal,

of the absolute—of that reality, in short, which infinitely transcends us and which alone can give us the standards whereby to measure all values and all ideals. This life of ours with its daily vicissitudes, with its richness and its misery, its goodness and meanness, its fortunes and misfortunes, this ever changing world, always pressing on towards a future which we cannot foresee but for which we must nevertheless be prepared, confront the child as he takes his initial steps and first looks about to find his way. Whatever his future walk of life, whatever may be the career which he will eventually carve out with his own hands, it is imperative that as he takes these first strides he have faith in a Cause which governs the universe, that he have confidence in a Value that is to strengthen his unfolding mind with the assurance of the goodness and rationality of life. The elementary school is of such nature that it can foster in the heart of the child this faith and trust in life, and can teach him how to struggle and suffer for an ideal, or it can nurture in him the first fatal germs of skepticism, and the mental habit of those who live at random, and gropingly feel their way through petty interests and selfish motives with no guidance from the light of ideals.

To raise the child's mind towards the divine in order that it may thence discover the serious purpose of human life is the only object of religious instruction. And if this teaching among us has taken the form of the Catholic faith, that is due solely to the fact that Catholicism has been through the centuries the belief of our people, that it is part of our tradition, that it is still adhered to by the great majority of Italians and that therefore it is best suited to foster the early growth of our children. But it will do so only on condition that, in accordance with the new educational programs, religious instruction be imparted not in the form of catechistic rules and of abstruse theological dogmas, but rather under that veil of art and imagination which being more readily grasped by the intuitive faculties of the child can better stimulate in him through this awakened interest, the need of reconstructing in his own manner, even though unconsciously, all that is alive in the tradition from which he proceeds.

Later on in life, after he has become more cognizant of his

activities and is going on to the secondary schools and to the university, the student will have the opportunity of clarifying his early experiences, of adding to them, and of subjecting to criticism his first conception of the absolute Principle of the world. He will then study the works of the great thinkers, he will take up philosophy and will gradually learn how to divest of its pristine imaginative and intuitive form that essential nucleus which will yet continue to be the justification of his faith and of his conduct.

The religious instruction of the elementary curriculum thus reveals its peculiar function which is not to stunt the pupil's personality by imposing upon him the creed of a given church, but rather to add spiritual vigor to his soul, that he may not find himself hollow and withered when, sooner or later, he begins to feel the need of envisaging more consciously the problem of the purposes of life. Religious teaching does not therefore represent coercion to the personality of the pupil, but assistance to its free and autonomous growth.

Not less essential to this end, and more clearly applicable to it, is the second fundamental principle of the elementary school reforms, viz., the teaching of art. Conceiving art as the immediate expression of the individuality and as the untrammeled creation of the subject, Gentile has insisted that the child, by nature an artist and a creator of his own phantom world, be encouraged to satisfy to the utmost the need of translating his nascent personality into imaged reality. For if the school is to aim at the formation of personalities, and if the personality of the child has an eminently artistic character, then this educational form must in the elementary schools necessarily prevail over all the others. Even a hasty glance at the new school programs is sufficient to convince us that the entire curriculum, from reading and composition up to drawing, science and recreation, nay to religion itself, has taken on a decided artistic bent. The child is no longer confronted with methods which he must mechanically and monotonously follow: he now learns penmanship without the use of those models which formerly compelled all pupils to write alike and without any individuality; he no longer has set themes to work out, nor is he obliged to write about something of which he knows nothing, and which has no interest for him. Now

he writes when he wants to, and when he feels that he has something to say, and these spontaneous compositions of his may take the form of diaries, or of reports on his every day experiences in and out of school. In his drawing class he is no longer made to reproduce lines and shadows from somebody else's design; he is told to draw from life, to put down what he actually sees, or what he imagines, and he may, if he wants to, draw pictures to illustrate his own diary. The study of mathematics does not consist any longer of a disinterested struggle with the old dried up numerical exercises. He is now encouraged to discover problems in the very activities he is engaged in at home or in school, and to work out their solutions. Science is no longer studied by memorizing passages from a textbook. The pupil is now placed in immediate contact with nature so that information may come to him so far as possible through direct observation. In short, teaching is carried on all along the line in such a way that the child is encouraged to do things by himself, to work out his own thoughts and thus gradually to mould an independent personality quite distinct from that of his fellow pupils. This means that he will go forth into the world with well-formed habits of initiative and independence; not merely equipped with the instrumental tools of reading and writing, but endowed also and above all with a firm awareness of his attainments and with the confidence of one who knows his own powers and limitations, and consequently his own place in the world.

The changes introduced in secondary teaching are equally fundamental and far-reaching. All the high schools with the exception of the classical gymnasium-lyceum have been either radically changed, suppressed or replaced. Every branch of secondary education is now endowed with its own particular function and therefore with a raison d'être which is different from that of all others. While giving greater impulse to professional training, the reform emphasizes the humanities and the liberal studies in the more cultural branches of secondary teaching. Here too the constant aim has been the forming of man in the integrity of his attributes and not the training of the expert or of the specialist. Hence the stress laid on the more specifically formative disciplines. Latin has been reintroduced in all secondary schools with the

exception of the complementary, which is destined for those who do not intend to pursue their studies further. Philosophy too has been given more importance. New subjects have been introduced such as political economy, the history of art, etc. But the reform owes its main value not to these more or less radical changes that have been introduced in the subject matter of the curriculum, but to the complete and profound transformations in the spirit of the teaching. For while the ideal of the old school was to impart text-book information and to cram the student's mind with the greatest possible number of simplified and catalogued notions, the spirit of the new programs, on the other hand, is in favor of educating by direct and immediate contact with the masters of thought and of art, doing away entirely with the old manual that provided the student with a ready-made and passively accepted knowledge. What is now demanded of the secondary school teacher is not the ability to give out a great quantity of details and facts, but the capacity to teach pupils how to appreciate and enjoy works of art, how to comprehend historical problems, how to formulate philosophic inquiries, how to arouse scientific curiosity for natural phenomena. These ends, clearly, the pupil cannot reach with the aid of the old manuals and school abridgments. He must needs be brought into close and direct contact with the thought of the poet or of the scientist if he is to assimilate into his own life that life of theirs that became effective in the act of their scientific and artistic creation. And at the examination the student is no longer expected to have on hand a mass of unassimilated information, destined soon to disappear without leaving any traces. Under the new regulations a candidate is considered well prepared if he is able to offer an intelligent criticism of a poem or of a prose passage, if he knows how to account for the course and sequence of historical events in the light of the organic unity of history, if he gives evidence of scientific interest and aptitude, if he shows capacity for philosophic thought.

The method of examining too has been changed to harmonize with this end, the state examination being introduced as one of the most radical innovations of the entire reform. Under the former régime it was understood that the student's progress should be passed upon by his own instructor either with or without the aid of written and oral examinations that were held at the close

of every year for each class of the secondary schools. It followed from this custom that the student got into the habit of considering the term or examination record as the sole object of his study and therefore felt that he could well afford to forget at the end of the year, and sometimes even at the end of the recitation that information which he had accumulated merely for the purposes of promotion. That fragmentary and unsystematic conception of education has been completely done away with by the introduction of the state examinations. The student is no longer examined at the close of every term by his own instructor. He now faces a single test which comes at the very end of the secondary school course, and is given by a state examining board which has no connection whatever with the candidate's school. He is not simply expected to answer questions on the topics studied in that year, but must give evidence of well-rounded intellectual progress, of a *spiritual maturity,* as the Italian has it, which can be fostered only in schools which devote themselves to the inner formation of the pupils' minds and characters. The examination questions themselves are so devised and formulated as to bring out the student's personality and outstanding characteristics rather than a certain amount of accumulated knowledge.

Another reason for the introduction of the state examination was the desire to promote competition between the different schools and thereby to give an opportunity for the full development of private institutions, by placing them on the same basis as the public schools. Under the old system every secondary school conferred its own diplomas which were as good as those of any other school of the same grade. It was impossible therefore to test effectively the value of these diplomas and the relative qualities of the schools themselves. The parents naturally sent their children to those institutions which had the reputation of being "easy" and where diplomas could be gotten with the least amount of labour. Under the present régime the practice has been reversed. No one now knows until the very last day who the examiners are going to be, hence the necessity on the part of the parents to pick out that school which, having the reputation of thoroughness and strictness, is more likely to insure success at the final examination. The state examination is therefore not only a test for the students but for the schools as well, and helps

to determine the relative value of the different institutions. And as such it tends to improve the whole field of education: for the less successful schools must either drop out or raise their standards; incompetent professors are removed, and the spirit of competition is kept alive. And not only is competition active among the different private schools but between these and the public school system as well, for in both cases the pupils are examined by outside professors who judge all without any preconceived notions, and with the same objective standards.

All the changes introduced in the university were likewise the result of the application of the principle of freedom. Before the Gentile reform all Italian universities were alike in form and content: the same faculties, the same subjects, the same administrative system. They were all under the same statutes whose measures necessarily controlled uniformly the activities of all.

As a result of the reform, each university acquired a distinctive and independent personality. Each was empowered to determine the number and the nature of the schools that were to constitute its faculties; each was authorized to decide upon its own program of studies; each was empowered to administer its income in the manner deemed most suited for the particular end it set for itself. The liberties enjoyed by the schools and faculties have also been extended to the students. They are no longer compelled to pass examinations in prescribed subjects. They are expected to fall back upon their own individual initiative, choose the courses they want, make up their schedules in accordance with their intellectual aptitudes and in view of the scholarly and scientific ends they wish to attain. These changes have been facilitated by the new rôle of university teaching and by the modified significance and value of the university degrees. More stress is now placed upon the purely scientific character of higher education, and less consideration is given to professional training. For it is science that demands the utmost freedom, and a freedom which should not be trammelled by preoccupations with duties and functions that are not strictly scientific. As a result the degree, the university diploma, has acquired a scientific value pure and simple and does not by itself qualify for any profession. The candidates for professional qualification must undergo a second state examination

designed to test their technical but not exclusively scientific proficiency.

The most important change introduced by the Gentile reform in the field of higher education and one which has likewise been prompted by this all-pervading spirit of liberty is the organization of private universities. To-day in Italy any one who gives satisfactory assurances and guarantees can establish and administer a higher institution of learning endowed with all the essential elements that characterize the state universities. So that not only primary and secondary instruction is now open to competition but university teaching as well. The effects of this change have not been slow in showing themselves. Universities have been founded and endowed by private individuals or by associations, among them the University of the Sacred Heart, avowedly confessional in character, presided over by Father Agostino Gemelli, O. F. M.

We should not be led to believe from what has been said that all checks and controls have been removed from university life. As I have already indicated, the concept of liberty which is at the basis of Gentile's reform is not the absentee liberalism of laissez faire, much more akin to anarchy than to liberty. The freedom proclaimed by Gentile is not opposed to law nor even indifferent to it. On the contrary it sees its own life-growth and its peculiar finalities in the very existence of this Law—of this state force and ideality. The State therefore allows the university all the freedom necessary for its independent development but it continues to control and discipline this liberty lest it degenerate into arrogance and anarchy. For this reason too the reform, while granting so many and such unhoped for immunities, yet makes the oath of allegiance obligatory for every professor, and requires that all presidents and heads of faculties be appointed by royal decree. For the State cannot remain aloof except at the price of losing its own raison d'être and above all without jeopardizing that very liberty which it endeavours to establish. This conception which has guided Gentile throughout the entire reform, and which issues from all his philosophical and political thinking, he has himself effectively presented in a page which in my opinion deserves to be quoted in its entirety:

"We believe and assert that the State is not a juridical system

of external checks and curbs, completely foreign to the inner life of man. For us the State is an ethical substance: it is the very consciousness of the individual which, historically developing, rises to social personality, affirms itself therein, and from it draws its worth. It does not therefore find itself confined within particular bounds, but unhindered, and with unobstructed range it feels itself empowered to expatiate freely as the collective, even though individualized, Will—as the nation therefore, which is this very Will when fully aware of itself and conscious of its own historical past; that past which projected before us in our consciousness moulds and fashions our nationality and generates the end of our activities and our life's mission. A mission to which we must, if need there be, sacrifice our very existence; for our life, our true, worthy and unmistakably valuable life, is the one which is devoted to the fulfillment of this mission. This active and dynamic consciousness of the State is Thought; it is a system of ideas and of interests that have to be satisfied, a moral life that has to be realized. Therefore the State is and must be endowed with the function of teaching. It must maintain and protect schools which foster the growth of this very moral life in which it acquires its own actuality, for in the school the State realizes itself. In no other way can we conceive of that liberty as it applies to the much discussed relations between the State and the school. Teaching is, must be, and, I dare say, cannot but be free: free because otherwise it would cease to be, in that it is development of spiritual life, and there is no spiritual life outside of freedom. But the objective existence of freedom is to be found in the State. Therefore the school is within the State whether the State supports it directly or whether it be administered by private individuals or associations; which individual and associations, insofar as they are recognized by law, and if in the exercise of their activities they keep within the limits prescribed by this law, are themselves indirect organs of the State invested with delegated power for the better furtherance of the State's own ends. The more conscious therefore the State becomes of this inner connection, the more carefully it will supervise these schools which though private yet belong to it and whose teaching therefore must be harmonized with its own direct activities in the

field of education. But it need not constrain their freedom of action, it being rather to its advantage to recognize this liberty and uphold it as an essential condition for the success both of the schools privately administered and of the institutions which it directly superintends."*

UGO SPIRITO.

ROME, ITALY.

Il Fascismo al Governo della Scuola, ed. F. E. Baffi, Palermo, Sandron, 1924, pp. 211-212.

CHAPTER I.

NATIONALISM IN EDUCATION

The history of Italy exerts, at the present time more than ever before, a tremendous influence on the type of education which is found there. The inclusion of religion in the elementary school curriculum, the devotion to Latin and Greek in the secondary schools, and the large number of universities are a direct result of the complicated history of the country. The cultural differences between the various sections of Italy can be understood only by some emphasis on the historical background of the several localities. It must be remembered that until modern times the Italians have had no political unity, no independence, no organized existence as a nation. Split up into numerous and mutually hostile communities, they never, through the fourteen centuries which have elapsed since the end of the old Western empire, shook off the yoke of foreigners completely; they never until lately learned to merge their local and conflicting interests in the common good of undivided Italy. Many of the differences in race and culture are due to this extremely complicated history of the country. Spanish and French influences and traditions, for example, are still strong in Southern Italy whereas in the Po Valley German influences predominate. The modes of life and standards of comfort and morality in North Italy differ widely from those of Calabria.

In a certain sense it is, therefore, a mistake to speak of the Italian character. Through many centuries Italy has been merely a geographical, not a cultural, entity—a federation of dissimilar provinces, not a nation. The Italian character, and this is especially true of every Italian not strictly in the labouring classes, is highly individual. This explains why Italy has had no tradition in education and, till of late, no educational system. Where there has been an experiment, where pioneer work has been done, it has centred entirely around one man, frequently dying with

him. "Italians cannot create methods, or train disciples," says Giuseppe Prezzolini, a contemporary man of letters; "things last the lifetime of one man, then die or change. . . . There are no organizations as in Germany . . . Italians are too individual. . . . They are a people full of originality. . . ."

Bearing this statement in mind it is easy to see why the Fascist program should present not only a rule of political conduct, but also a moral and cultural code. It states that "the nation is not merely the sum total of living individuals, nor the instrument of parties for their own ends, but an organism comprising the unlimited series of generations, of which individuals are merely transient elements; it is the synthesis of all the material and non-material values of the race." The Fascist doctrine was authoritatively set forth by Professor Alfredo Rocco, Minister of Justice, in a speech at Perugia on August 31, 1925, in which he declared that, according to Fascism, society does not exist for the individual, but the individual for society, although Fascism does not ignore the individual as the individuals ignored society under certain older doctrines, but merely subordinates him to society, while securing his right to develop his personality. The aim of Fascism is to get its main principles generally accepted by the nation and embodied in a series of legislative reforms which shall make of Italy an essential national State, as opposed to the pre-existing liberal State, wherein the seditious elements were free to conspire against the general welfare in the interest of class or clique. These reforms comprise the restoration of national finance, the reorganization of the bureaucracy in the interests of efficiency, the reform of education, the peaceable regulation of labour conflicts, the re-establishment of discipline in every department of the State and every aspect of national life, the improvement of agriculture and the progress of industry.

FASCIST IDEALS IN THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

In considering the reform of Italian education under the Fascist régime, it is important to note the relationship between the new educational system and nationalism. The two great forces that have operated in the development of modern history are nationalism and democracy. Both of these forces have profoundly modified educational ideas and practices. In fact the operation of the

two forces has produced the modern public school system; and the varying forms in which the modern state systems of education occur are due to the diverse operation of these forces. In a very striking way the force of nationalism has been the determining one in shaping the school systems of the Italian and other European people, while in the United States it has been the force of democracy that has been chiefly responsible for the characteristic educational views and practices.

The basis of nationality has been variously analyzed and assigned. Its essential characteristics are a common language, common religious beliefs and organizations, natural boundaries, common culture which includes common ideas, common aspirations, common habits, common intuitions, common aims and purposes. These are the bonds which hold people together in a nationality. The new organization of Italian education as formulated by Professor Giovanni Gentile who entered Mussolini's cabinet as Minister of Public Instruction in 1922, is designed to strengthen nationality through this cultivation of a common culture. Herein is its great divergence from the educational system of the United States where school activities are determined by the interests of the individual and of society and are organized for the development of individuality rather than for any nationalistic consideration.

This divergence becomes clearer as we look into the characteristics of a national scheme of education. In the first place there is in this system a sharp differentiation between elementary and secondary education. The elementary and secondary schools are organized to produce different cultural results. In other words the secondary and the elementary schools form parallel systems. This does not imply that only the rich are entitled to a high school education; it merely means that only students who are seriously inclined will receive a secondary school education in government institutions.

Another characteristic of the system is a perfection of detail in method of organization and selection of subject matter, such as is not attained in the American schools. This is due in part to the more prolonged and uniform training of teachers, in part to the fact that their tenure is usually a life one and they are as a rule considered public officials, and in part to the greater stability

of social customs and institutions as compared with the flexibility of those of America. The perfection of detail is a result of the dominance of national control. A further characteristic, and the last we will note in the many which might be suggested, is that of compulsory religious education, which however is not incompatible with freedom in ecclesiastical affiliation or religious belief. The Italians, like most European peoples, insist upon the inclusion of religious training in the state education, not so much because they are more religious than the people of America but because they believe that a religious education of an orthodox type given by teachers who are state officials or who hold their positions by virtue of conformity to very definite state and ecclesiastical requirements, constitutes a factor in national stability.

A study of the organization and curricula of all types of schools in Italy as laid down in the recent reform, clearly shows how the spirit of nationalism has been embodied in the very life of the school. The elementary school, for example, which formerly aimed almost exclusively at the teaching of the three R's, aspiring only to give the pupil the technical means of culture and not culture *per se,* has now become the true formative school of the great mass of people. The learning of the technical means is now of secondary importance, and attention is entirely devoted to the spiritual development which, in the case of the child, is brought about especially through religious and artistic instruction. The same principle has been followed in the secondary school, where the formative subjects have been greatly developed somewhat at the expense of scientific training. Latin has been introduced into all the secondary schools with the exception of the complementary school which follows the elementary school but does not lead to the university or an institution of higher learning; history has received a more prominent position in the curriculum and its spirit has been recast; philosophy and education have been greatly emphasized. The whole system of secondary education has been fundamentally based on the direct knowledge of the classics. Even the university now stresses the general culture of the student and his ability to orient himself in his studies and in his life, rather than the particular knowledge of various subjects. The state examination introduced by the reform, aims precisely at this new cultural direction.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The Casati Educational Law of 1859

It is not possible to form an accurate idea of the importance and effects of the Gentile educational reforms unless it is noted that until 1923 education in Italy was still being administered under the famous law promulgated November 13, 1859, during the Second War of Independence, by Victor Emanuel II of Savoy at the instance of the Minister Gabrio Casati, establishing a system of public instruction for Piedmont and Lombardy. This ordinance was gradually extended to other regions and changed and modified in various ways. In certain respects these changes had modified the original law to meet modern cultural exigencies, but in doing so they had struck a severe blow at the very spirit and significance of the law.

According to the Casati law the entire educational system in all its branches — higher, intermediate and elementary — was centralized in the Ministry of Public Instruction composed of four general departments which were further subdivided into divisions and sections. The Minister of Public Instruction, as chief executive officer, directed all public instruction (exclusive of that of the military, nautical, and vocational schools, and the kindergartens), and supervised private instruction. He had the right to issue orders and instructions to his subordinates, to amend or annul their acts, and to decide on conflicts arising among them. The Minister was assisted by a Central Office of Inspection consisting of twelve inspectors of secondary schools and ten of elementary schools, and by a special advisory technical council known as the Superior Council of Public Instruction.

In addition to the central administration there were local school bodies. The provincial school administration was composed of

the educational supervisor who was the chief provincial officer of the central administration. In every province there was also a so-called school bureau which carried on the educational business of the province.

The Casati Law, as promulgated in 1859, provided that public elementary schools were to be administered directly by the councils of the respective municipalities elected by general suffrage. But in 1911, the municipalities because of their failure to provide adequate facilities, were deprived of the right to administer their elementary schools, except in the case of the chief cities of provinces and districts and in other more progressive and richer municipalities which guaranteed the greatest possible development of education. All the other public elementary schools were entrusted to a special body called the Provincial School Council, composed of fifteen members. In every province there was also a government body known as the Government Delegation composed of five members, exercising financial control over all the expenditures decided on by the Provincial School Council. The discretionary powers of the municipality, even when it was allowed to administer its schools, were reduced to a mimimum. The regular municipal organs of administration were strictly compelled to obey the state regulations and laws and had to receive the approval of the Provincial School Council in all educational matters. This system was, however, good in many respects, although bureaucratic and lacking elasticity. The teachers were too closely restricted. The subjects prescribed were too numerous, and yet fine arts and music and games were not taught. Primary education was theoretically compulsory, but the weak spot was the difficulty of enforcing the compulsion. This was partly due to the small interest taken by the nation in its system of education notwithstanding that the schools were open to every one. In the course of this study other defects in the pre-Gentile school system will be noted. It is sufficient at the present time to mention that the educational reforms under the Mussolini government were needed to supply serious training in order to produce a competent governing body, which was lacking.

As a matter of fact a rapid survey of the various educational bills and reports presented during the past fifty years or more cannot

fail to impress the reader with the numerous plans and proposals that died before acquiring definite form, and the honest and sincere efforts which were destined to failure. The Casati Educational Law had barely been passed and carried into effect when modifications were introduced. The succeeding ministers of Public Instruction — Bertini, Berti, Coppino, Bonghi, Boselli, Villari and others — dealt with various special problems: e.g., the increase or decrease of the number of hours devoted to Latin; the continuance or discontinuance of courses in Greek; whether technical and vocational education should be under the Ministry of Public Instruction or under the Ministry of Agriculture, etc., etc. All proposals were limited to certain specific points — examinations, inspections, salaries, distribution of schools, and the "single type school." All of these were no doubt important questions, but evidently their solution was possible only by incorporating them in a vast plan of educational reform. For in spite of several reforms the deplorable conditions of education in Italy at the beginning of the present century are well known to all experts. Even the text-books used in the various types of schools had lost their value. The Italian classics were no longer read; in fact they were not even being reprinted. Of the works of great Italian pedagogists of the Renaissance and the Risorgimento (the accomplishment of the unification of Italy) nothing was available except some dusty volumes on library shelves or in a second-hand book store.

EFFECT OF THE WORLD WAR ON EDUCATION

The economic and social upheaval of Italy caused by her entrance into the World War in May, 1915, inevitably led her educators to submit her traditional system of education to more careful scrutiny than ever before, and to recognize how inadequate it was along certain lines to meet the demands thrust upon it by the new conditions. The War had demonstrated the necessity of raising the moral value of the nation, since it was shown that the vital force of the nation was represented by its moral force. The educational world of Italy, therefore, was not slow in taking advantage of the new strategic position of the schools to start a propaganda of reform, which was taken up by the

educational and secular press. Of the numerous projects and plans suggested, some naturally did not become law; but all showed a uniform national desire to throw off the dead hand of traditionalism and to make education subserve the actual needs of the nation.

While no reforms in elementary education were put into effect during the War, under the administration of Minister Berenini, systematic attempts were made, insofar as this was possible by departmental ordinances, to bring elementary education into vital relation with the needs of every day life, especially in the rural districts. From the early days of the War steadily increasing attention was given to the subjects and methods of public instruction adapted to the changing conditions. This took definite form in June, 1918, in the appointment, by royal decree, of a commission, headed by the Minister of Public Instruction and composed of members of the Higher Council and other Italian educational experts, to study and report upon the subjects and form of education adapted to the solution of the most urgent problems that were to confront the nation. The report of the commission appeared the same week as the signing of the armistice and contained the following recommendations:

1. Enforcement of all school laws and the overhauling of the national financial system to this end.
2. Establishment of kindergartens as part of the national education system.
3. Construction of new school buildings in proportion to the population of the various districts so as to properly enforce the compulsory school law.
4. Establishment in every municipality of one or more compulsory schools of four grades.
5. Establishment of special secondary schools for preliminary training of teachers.
6. Raising the minimum salary of teachers to 3,000 lire a year.
7. Lengthening the school year.
8. Fixing the final leaving age of pupils at eighteen years.
9. Establishment of compulsory schools for illiterate adults up to forty-five years.

10. Establishment of popular courses, schools of hygiene and sanitation, languages, etc.
11. Subordination of the national budget to the needs of popular education, and not vice versa.

The striking feature of this move is that the Italian Government conceived even during the War of no renewal of her economic life without the accompanying reform in her educational system. After the War the work of reforming the school was taken up in 1920-21 by the Minister, Benedetto Croce, whose "bill on secondary school examinations" showed the aim of the reforms he had planned. But the fall of the Ministry prevented a parliamentary discussion of his bill and conditions remained unchanged.

GENTILE'S PROGRAM

When Benito Mussolini became Premier of Italy he appointed Professor Giovanni Gentile, Italian philosopher, as Minister of Public Instruction. This was in October, 1922, and shortly afterwards the Government asked the Chamber of Deputies to grant the new minister unconditional powers. Gentile, freed from parliamentary worries, in a few months succeeded in completely reforming the Italian school system, although the general principles had previously been discussed in educational circles.

Gentile and his associates understood that educational reforms could be carried out successfully only through the conception of new ideals. In his recent book on *Reform of Education,* Gentile explains that the aim of education is to produce men, and to use his own words, "man is unworthy of this unless he is a master of himself, capable of initiating his own acts, responsible for his acts, able to discern and assimilate the ideas which he accepts and professes, affirms and propagates, so that whatever he says, thinks, or does, really comes from him." He favors freedom of education because a school without freedom is "a lifeless institution." It is the duty of every teacher to arouse in his pupils interests that but for him would forever be dormant. The pupils must be directed towards an end which they would be unable to estimate properly if left alone; they must be helped to overcome the numerous obstacles that prevent their progress. "The teacher must, in short, transfuse into the pupils something of himself,

and out of his own spiritual substance create the elements of the pupil's character, mind, and will." Gentile says that culture may be conceived of in two ways — the realistic and the idealistic: Most educators at the present time accept the realistic conception of culture. But Gentile stresses the fact that idealistic culture is the only one that can be bestowed upon the spirit, the only one that can be taught and learned concretely.

The meaning of the Gentile educational reforms, aside from the technical structure and the spirit of the details of the new laws, can be fully understood only by a study of the idealistic principles of the old and the new school systems. Towards the end of the Nineteenth Century and the beginning of the present century, the positivistic or Herbartian direction of pedagogy was predominant in Italy. Italian culture and the school in particular were inspired by the principles of positivism which in education led to the conception of a self-styled lay school in which neutralism, eclecticism, and skepticism must necessarily triumph. The school not only rendered the soul of the pupil sterile but encumbered his mind with a mass of unorganized theories. A little later in the Twentieth Century critical theories underwent a considerable change. This was due to the general reaction against positivism and materialism in favour of idealism, which is plainly of Italian tradition and which found the most eminent supporters in Benedetto Croce and Giovanni Gentile. In numerous publications and in the periodical *La Critica* they started a general revision of the results of the prevailing positivistic doctrine, and after twenty years of untiring and continuous work they have completely reformulated Italian culture. Many have applied these principles, and even those who disagree with them have felt their influence. In this respect Gentile shares with Croce the right to be treated as one of the most important philosophical thinkers of the present day and as a great critic.

Gentile, through an original critical revaluation of the history of thought and especially of Italian philosophy, has developed the system of actual idealism and absolute immanentism which, in dissolving the transcendental residue, represents the most decisive victory against all kinds of mere intellectualism. But Gentile is above all an educator. The identity of philosophy and life has

enabled him to develop his philosophy into a true and real theory of education. The true and exclusive aim of the school must be the formation of mind and heart, the preparation of man for the complex manifestations of life. With Gentile education has, for the first time, been conceived as absolutely identical with philosophy. His *Summary of Education as a Philosophic Science* therefore marks a milestone in the history of education. Croce has given us an excellent summary of Gentile's services to education. He said: "Indeed, we owe it to Gentile that Italian pedagogy has attained in the present day a simplicity and a depth of concepts unknown elsewhere. In Italy, not educational science alone, but the practice of it and its political aspects have been thoroughly recast and amply developed. And this, too, is due pre-eminently to the work of Gentile. His authority therefore is powerfully felt in schools of all grades, for he has lived intensely the life of the school and loves it dearly."

The changes introduced into the educational system of Italy by Gentile include the suppression of superfluous schools; revision of the curriculum so as to supply the student with a well-rounded course of study while preparing him for the next grade in case he should decide to interrupt his work; compulsory religious education (the crucifix ordered to be displayed in all schools) and the requirement that religious education should be conducted by teachers approved by the Church authorities. Students with conscientious objections may be excused from the study of religion upon application to the school authorities. Another important change, which gave rise to extensive debates, was the limitation of the number of students who could receive free secondary education of the expense of the State. The number of free schools was limited as well as the number of students who might attend, the principle on which this change was based being that only those students should obtain free education who had shown through competitive examinations that they were worth educating.

It was suggested that by reducing the number of government schools and limiting the number of students in attendance heavier burdens were placed on religious and private schools; that by combining important chairs, such as history, mathematics, etc., teachers were overloaded with work and specialization was

discouraged. Some objected to the restoration of the study of Latin in all the secondary schools that prepared for the universities and to the greater rigor introduced in the examinations. Yet all this was found necessary to instill a new spirit in the Italian school. In the following chapters it will be seen that the Gentile reforms introduce by means of their programs a new spirit into the school — a spirit aiming at the elevation of the standard of culture, at autonomy and responsibility for teachers, and at intellectual and moral activity for students.

CHAPTER III.

SPIRIT OF THE GENTILE REFORM

General Organization of Education

The entire educational system of Italy, according to the Royal Decree of July 16, 1923, No. 1735[1], is controlled by the Minister of Public Instruction who is appointed by the Government. To the Minister is given more power and responsibility for educational progress than to any single school executive in the United States holding a similar office. Scattered throughout the entire body of the school law there appear many provisions covering his numerous responsibilities and legal obligations. With this officer rests the appointment of his division and bureau chiefs and his clerical and professional staff, including all teachers. In him is vested the responsibility for the organization of the entire school system. Under his direction courses of study for all schools are prepared, and through supervisors appointed by him their use is enforced.

In addition to the Minister of Public Instruction, the Central Administration includes an Under-Secretary of State and the general directors of elementary, secondary, and higher education and of the antiquities and fine arts. There are also four councils connected with the Central Administration, these are: (1) the Superior Council and the Board of Superior Council; (2) the Central Commission and the Board of the Central Commission for the antiquities and fine arts; (3) the Commission on Appeals of Elementary Teachers and the Disciplinary Proceedings (First Commission); (4) the Commission on Appeals

[1]See appendix A for full text of this decree.

of Secondary School Instructors and Disciplinary Proceedings (Second Commission). The most important of the councils is the Superior Council composed of twenty-one members in addition to the Minister, who is the presiding officer. The former system under which teachers and educational directors elected their representatives to the Section of Elementary and Public Instruction had been found to be unsatisfactory, for politics played a very important part at these elections. Therefore this Section was replaced by the First Commission which takes care of the appeals made by public school teachers and directors.

The work of the Ministry of Public Instruction is divided into eleven divisions, not including the two divisions for the antiquities and fine arts. The duties of each division have been clearly defined.[1] The organization is as follows:

Cabinet of the Minister.
Cabinet of the Under-Secretary of State.
Autonomous Division
  Division I.—General matters; administrative work of the Ministry and supervisors.

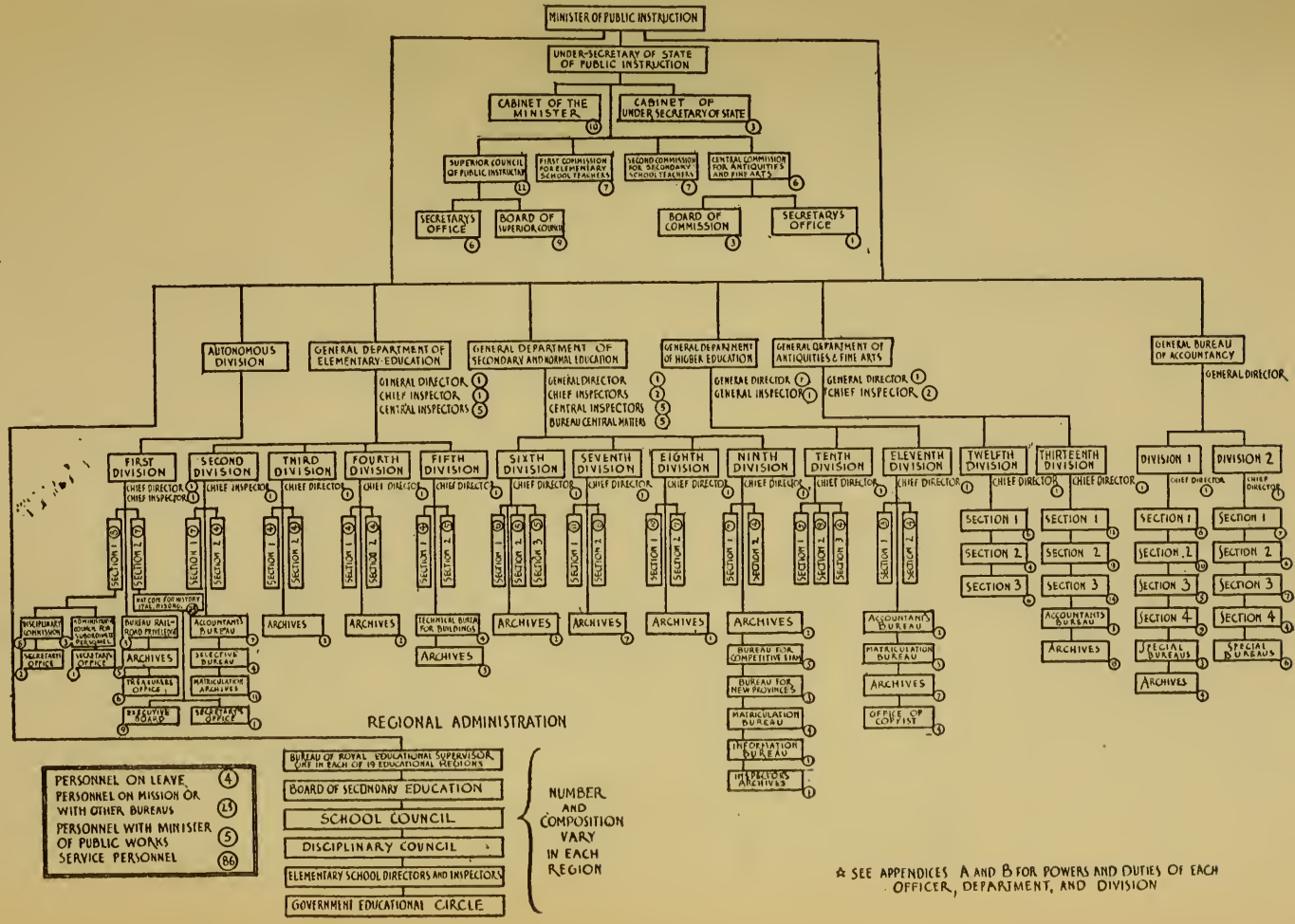
General Department of Elementary Education
  Division II.—General matters; personnel; legislation.
  Division III.—School organization.
  Division IV.—Statistics and publications.
  Division V.—School administration; hygiene; building.

General Department of Secondary and Normal Education
  Division VI.—Private and standardized schools; establishment of government schools.
  Division VII.—Personnel of classical and technical schools.
  Division VIII.—Personnel of complementary and normal schools; institutes of education for girls.
  Division IX.—Examinations; endowments; boarding schools.

General Department of Higher Education and Libraries.
  Division X.—General matters; personnel of universities, higher institutes and libraries; scientific and literary institutes and bodies.

[1]See appendix B for details.

Ministry of Public Instruction—Plan of Organization—Central Administration*



* SEE APPENDICES A AND B FOR POWERS AND DUTIES OF EACH OFFICER, DEPARTMENT, AND DIVISION

Division XI.—Equipment of universities, higher institutes and libraries; students; endowments; legacies; gifts; work of libraries.

General Department of Antiquities and Fine Arts
Divisions XII and XIII.

The General Department of Elementary and Popular Education was formerly composed of seven divisions with powers which were often conflicting and ambiguously defined, so that it often happened that the same work was being done simultaneously by different bureaus. This meant a considerable loss of time and effort as shown by the frequent delays in the performance of simple tasks, and the uncertain relations existing between the Central Administration, the local bureaus, and the subordinate staff. The Decree of June 28, 1923, reduced the seven divisions to four, each enjoying full autonomy, and, with its duties clearly defined. It is interesting to note that the four elementary school divisions with a greatly reduced personnel have accomplished much more work than was possible with the former seven divisions under the old régime. No one who had occasion to write to the Ministry for information could ever hope for a reply by return mail. But such service is being given by the new administration.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION

The foregoing section of this chapter has treated in a descriptive way the character of the work done by the existing divisions and bureaus of the Office of the Minister of Public Instruction. It is now necessary to study the local administrative machine. The problem of reorganizing the local administrative educational bureaus faced the new Government and demanded prompt solution. Some districts had too many educational supervisors most of whom did not have a clear understanding of the local school needs. Because of the numerous difficulties arising from this chaotic situation the Royal Decree of December 31, 1922, No. 1679, abolished the provincial school bureaus and their respective divisions, reduced the central and provincial administrative technical personnel, and transferred the work of the former provincial educational supervisors to nineteen educational supervisors including those of the new provinces. The boundaries of each supervisor were fixed by

the ministerial decrees of June 18, and August 25, 1923. In establishing these jurisdictions special attention was given to the peculiar geographical and climatic conditions of the different regions. The Royal Decree of November 3, 1923, No. 2453, fixed the powers of the local school authorities. The royal educational supervisor is the chief officer of the local school administration; he governs the schools in non-autonomous municipalities, and also supervises and promotes elementary education in the autonomous municipalities.

The educational supervisor is the immediate representative of the Minister of Public Instruction. He is appointed by the Minister. There is a supervisor to each one of the nineteen educational districts into which Italy has been divided and which usually includes several provinces. The term "supervisor" is somewhat misleading when applied to the work of these officers in Italy. In reality a supervisor is the business and administrative agent of the Minister of Public Instruction. His duty is to keep the classes running in accordance with the printed schedules and on time with respect to the several subdivisions of the course of study. In other words, his first duty in the schools is to keep the educational machine in smooth running order and to carry out instructions. The work of the supervisor, therefore, is primarily inspectorial.

Assisting the royal educational supervisors in the local administration of the schools are the school and disciplinary councils. The membership of the School Council has been reduced from fifteen to seven, and includes the royal supervisor, who is its president, a principal of a secondary school, a physician, and four other educational experts. The members are appointed by the Minister and hold office for three years. The School Council is an advisory body entrusted with the control of all provincial schools, and it is empowered to deal with all general matters pertaining to the development of national culture. The Council meets twice a month principally to decide on the establishment, distribution, and discontinuance of schools; and to consider leaves of absence, discharge of teachers, transfers, and promotions. The supervisor has the right to submit to the Council all business which he deems necessary.

The Disciplinary Council considers questions on the discipline

of teachers and municipal educational directors and inspectors. Its powers are clearly defined, thus eliminating the doubts which had existed previously in the application of the 1911 law. This Council has been reduced from seven to five members, but the representation of directors and teachers remains unchanged, a municipal educational director or an elementary teacher acting as member, depending on whether the charges are against a teacher or a director. The members of the Disciplinary Council are nominated by the Minister and hold office for three years.

In this new organization there has been a decentralization of the immense administrative machine which has hitherto hindered the development not only of elementary but also of secondary and higher education. On many questions the pronouncement of supervisors are final, e.g., leaves of absence, certificates of service, appointment of substitutes, etc. They may, for sanitary or other serious reasons, order the closing of schools and may also appoint, in agreement with the prefect, school commissioners in municipalities which do not fulfill the school obligations.

This tendency of rational decentralization of the activities and functions (which is in fact one of the chief tendencies of the entire reform) was indicated in the circulars of September 3 and 14, 1923; later, it was clarified by the Royal Decree of November 3, 1923, No. 2453, on the organization of primary instruction which sharply establishes and defines the powers of the inspectors and directors, and in the Ministerial Ordinance of January 10, 1924, providing for the application of the Royal Decree of October 1, 1923, No. 2185, concerning the various types of schools, and the programs of the elementary school.

The powers and jurisdiction of educational inspectors and directors in charge of the local supervision and administration of the schools have been clearly defined. The royal school inspector supervises the schools in his jurisdiction; he authorizes the opening of private schools and also issues certificates of service. The government director visits the schools, compiles reports on teachers; appoints teachers to the various classes; prepares the school calendar; and appoints the examination commissions. In autonomous municipalities the administration of the school is entrusted to a municipal educational director who is assisted by divisional

directors, one for every thirty classes. Government inspectors and directors are appointed on the basis of competitive examinations.

As proof of the smoothness with which the new organization is running it may be pointed out that during the first half of 1923 it was possible, as a direct result of the new local organization and without any additional expenditures, to balance the accounts of the former school administrations, which had for many years been ignored. It was also possible to complete and bring up to date the statistical investigations which had long been neglected. Other important work accomplished included: the institution of provincial competitive examinations, the simplification of the financial accounts of the new supervisors, and the preparation of maps for the revision of the school jurisdictions. During the second half of 1923, the records of the new school bureaus were brought up-to-date. These bureaus, too, were able to reply by return mail to the school authorities and teachers, they completed the competitive examinations for which there were about 24,000 candidates, examined several thousand applications for transfers, carried out the classification of schools, and appointed examination commissions for all classes, and assistants for vacant positions. But the school bureaus as a matter of fact accomplished much more than this: they instilled new vigour and a new spirit into the school; they conducted an active propaganda explaining the new laws, enlightening teachers, families, and students; they promoted excellent school ceremonies; organized teachers' meetings; prepared and inaugurated lecture courses and method schools for teachers.

In this work of reforming the school, the Central Administration has not lost sight of the new provinces. Although the organization of education in these provinces under the old régime differed radically from that of Italy, yet political conditions made it inadvisable to introduce drastic changes. Minister Gentile was, therefore, careful in extending the regulations of the Kingdom to the new provinces, always taking local conditions into consideration and providing for a certain amount of flexibility. For example, he sanctioned the continuation for a limited period of the schools and boards which had existed under the old régime. However, by June, 1924, the entire reform had been enforced and all

of the schools of the new provinces had a uniform system of administration.

Under the new régime a great variety of duties formerly performed by the Minister personally are given to the supervisors. The school inspectors and government directors exercise powers which were formerly held by the School Bureau. Within proper spheres, therefore, the authority of each officer has been increased so as to remove the obstacles that formerly made it impossible for the authorities to take immediate action in urgent cases. It is characteristic of this somewhat bureaucratic system, that some of the most highly-gifted Italian educators are employed by the Government as inspectors and in the administrative end of the work. Administratively, this system is by no means simple, but the whole complex machinery works because everybody's zone is carefully defined and there is no debatable ground on which rival authorities can wrangle.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Kindergartens

Elementary education, according to the Royal Decree of October 1, 1923,[1] is divided into three grades, i.e., the kindergartens for pupils from four to seven years of age, the elementary schools, consisting of five classes, and the supplementary courses. It is important to note that for the first time in the history of Italian education kindergarten instruction is considered as an essential part of the elementary course. Heretofore the Italian kindergarten, like the French, has not offered anything remotely related to the elaborate kindergarten system of the United States, but has taken care of and has more or less instructed the children for the school day. As a result of the Gentile reform, however, marked progress has been made in this field of education. This is shown in the better adjustment of the kindergarten to the school as a whole; the improvement in the training of kindergarten teachers; and the continued increase in the enrolment in the kindergartens of the country.

The improvement in the adjustment of the kindergarten to the school is evident. Prior to the Gentile reform the work of the kindergarten had no definite relation to that of the grades to

[1]See appendix C for full text of this decree.

follow. There was a definite reason for this. The kindergarten illustrated a conception of education quite new, that of guidance of children's interests and activities at the successive stages of their development. Its work was therefore in marked contrast to that of the primary grades, which was still conceived of as the mastery of the tools of learning. This made difficult the unification of the work of the two. The complete adjustment of the kindergarten to the school is shown in the unified kindergarten-primary curriculum. Formerly the kindergarten teacher had her outline of work, or program, and the primary teacher her course of study. Both were little more than statements of things to be done or subjects to be taught during a given period. Both were equally formal. The change in educational objectives during the past few years, with the broadening of the elementary curriculum and the changes in method which this entailed, has called a new type of curriculum into existence. With a clearer understanding of the new educational ideals and their implications for the work of the early years, the essential unity of the aims and methods of the kindergarten and primary grades became apparent, and the new courses of study give evidence to this.

The advance in the science of psychology in recent years has caused great changes in educational theory and practice, and the conception of education as the guidance of children's interests and activities is being gradually accepted as the true one, not for the kindergarten only but, in a greater or less degree, for the school as a whole. In consequence, many changes have been made in the organization and equipment of the elementary school in recent years. Not only have such subjects as play and games, music and art in its several aspects, been added to the curriculum, but playgrounds, gymnasiums, workshops, and art studios have been provided in order that the work in these subjects may be as effective as possible. The methods, too, have been changed to allow opportunities for initiative and self-expression. While the Montessori system as a whole has not been very largely adopted its cardinal idea, under the name of "individual work", is spreading widely in infants' schools in Italy modifying or replacing the tradition of the Froebel kindergarten. It has also helped to inspire numerous attempts to break away from the old-fashioned routine of class-instruction in the education of older scholars, and to give

in both elementary and secondary schools, a larger place to individual and self-directed study and practical activity.

The Ordinance of February 16, 1926, authorized the Società Umanitaria of Milan to conduct a course for the preparation of teachers of kindergartens and elementary schools in accordance with the Montessori method. The course which is under the personal supervision of Dr. Maria Montessori lasts six months and includes the following subjects: physiology of children, the Montessori method, psychology, religion, domestic economy, music and art.

According to the new programs the weekly hours of instruction in the kindergarten are thirty-five, based on a daily period of six hours. Shorter hours are, however, allowed but they cannot be less than the average stipulated for the elementary grades. The program for the preparatory classes is as follows:

Subjects	*Hours per week*
Religion	1
Singing, drawing, recitation	4
Recreation	6
Gardening, gymnastics, hygiene, etc.	24
TOTAL	35

In the training of kindergarten teachers the progress has been especially marked. This is shown by the Royal Decree of December 31, 1923, No. 3106, on the establishment of method-schools offering a three years' course for the preparation of kindergarten teachers. Henceforth these teachers must possess a diploma from a recognized institution. Their status will be the same as that of the elementary school teachers. It is interesting to note that up to the time of the Gentile reform only a small percentage of teachers and directors of kindergartens held kindergartener's diploma or a qualifying elementary teacher's diploma. Sixty-six per cent did not possess any degrees at all which is partly explained by the fact that the salaries of kindergarten teachers with the exception of those in large cities were much less than those of the elementary school teachers. The offering of advanced courses in kindergarten education and the granting of degrees in that subject have contributed very materially to the progress of the kindergarten movement. Much of the kindergarten training

in the past has dealt with the kindegarten only, and thereby prevented the graduate kindergartener from doing her best work because she did not see her own work as a part of the whole educational process.

The fact that the number of children enrolled in the kindergartens constitutes but a small proportion of the children of kindergarten age in Italy is well known. In 1921-22 there were 5,902 kindergartens which had an enrolment of 397,610 children from three to six years of age. Therefore only about one-sixth of the two million children between these ages attended the kindergartens. The outstanding reason for this is that a large percentage of the children in the country at large live in small rural communities or the open country. After all, poor kindergarten attendance is common to all Latin countries. France, for example, with a population of about equal to that of Italy had in 1919-1920 only 3,416. public and private kindergartens which were attended by 246,985 children between the ages of two and six. It is encouraging to note, however, that the number of kindergartens in Italy increased from 4,587 in 1914-1915 to 5,962 in 1923, chiefly because of the excellent work of certain associations, especially the Association for the Interests of the South, the National Association for the South, and the Committee for the Establishment of Schools and Kindergartens in the Roman Campagna.

As might be expected, the geographical distribution of kindergartens in Italy is not uniform. The largest number of them and of children in attendance are in Lombardy and Piedmont, followed by Venetia, Campania, Emilia, and Tuscany; Basilicata and Molise are at the bottom of the list. Regions that have the smallest number of kindergartens in proportion to the population also have a large number of pupils per teacher. The extremes are 23 pupils per teacher in Piedmont as compared to 48 pupils per teacher in Sardinia. The average for Italy is 31.

The diverse system of administration of kindergartens makes it impossible for the Minister of Public Instruction to exercise any control over them, although it does exercise a technical and pedagogic supervision. Two-fifths of the kindergartens (2,225 out of 5,902) are supported by recognized organizations, all others are established and supported by municipalities and other associations. The Ministry of Public Instruction encourages the establishment

of such schools principally by subsidies. During 1921-22 it granted subsidies to 2,246 or 38.05 per cent of the 5,902. The total amount of these subsidies was 1,036,519 lire, or 2.78 lire per hundred inhabitants, varying from a maximum of 5.50 lire for Molise to a minimum of 1.22 lire for Liguria. The average government grant per child enrolled was 2.60 lire for the Kingdom, varying from a maximum of 11.32 lire per child in Molise to a minimum of 0.85 lire per child in Lombardy. The Royal Decree of December 31, 1923, granted the sum of 5,000,000 lire to a fund to be raised by means of subsidies and contributions, for the support and maintenance of kindergartens and to promote and spread the establishment of these schools.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

That the Italian elementary school was in need of a radical reform had long been the general opinion of teachers, statesmen, and citizens of all classes. It was plain that education had to be adapted to practical ends, and Professor Giovanni Gentile set himself to accomplish this. He considered that his first task was to reform the spirit of the teachers. These must learn that education is no mere matter of empirical rules, or even of organization, but is a spiritual activity, involving the continuous self-recreation of the individual teacher. According to Gentile the school begins when man for the first time becomes aware of the existence of a store of accumulated culture. In this sense culture is "what we ourselves are making; it is the life of our spirit." He adds: "the only culture that can be bestowed upon the spirit, the only one that admits of being concretely imparted, the only one that can be sought, because it is the only one that really exists, is idealistic culture. It is not in the books, nor in the brains of others. It exists in our souls as it is gradually being formed there. The idealistic conception of culture enables us to get an initial understanding of the spirituality of the school. This spirituality is surely felt by all those who live within the class-room."

The plan is to entrust the teacher with a large amount of liberty in working out the purpose prescribed to him. This is to be accompanied by greater freedom for local educational authorities, through which they can adapt the schools to the varying requirements of their neighborhood.

It is a new experience to read in an official decree such words as those with which Professor Gentile introduced the new programs in 1923:

"The schemes for study which are described here are intended primarily as a guide. The teacher is informed of the result which the State expects from his work in each school year, leaving him free to use what he individually considers the most suitable means for arriving at it. These, for several reasons, are always various and elastic; according to how the teacher is situated with regard to his scholastic surroundings, and according to his individual personal culture, and the particular character which he has succeeded in giving to the spirit of his teaching, by means of observation and personal experience. The following schemes are designed in such a way as to oblige the teacher continually to renew his personal culture, not only by means of the superficial little manuals in which he can gather the crumbs of knowledge, but from the living fountains of national culture. . . . These schemes forbid the commonplace platitudes which have so long dulled children's education, and demand pure genuine poetry, sincere searching for truth, energetic investigation of the popular spirit restless and never satisfied asking always the reason why, the rapture of contemplating pictures resplendent with art and life, the communion with great souls which speak through the mouth of the teacher."

The following is the suggested program for elementary schools:

	CLASSES						
Subjects	*Preparatory*	*I*	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*	*Supplementary*
Religion	1	1½	1½	2	2	2	2
Singing, drawing, penmanship, recitation	4	2½	2½	4	5	5	3
Reading, writing, and exercises in Italian language	—	7	6	5	5	4	3
Spelling	—	—	2	2	—	—	—
Arithmetic, geometrical drawing, bookkeeping	—	4	4	4	3	3	2
Miscellaneous studies and recreation	6	4	4	4	1	1	1
Gardening, manual training, domestic science, gymnastics, games, lunches, hygiene	24	6	5	4	4	4	—
Physical and natural sciences, hygiene	—	—	—	—	2	2	3
History and geography	—	—	—	—	3	3	2
Elements of law and economics	—	—	—	—	—	1	1
Vocational training	—	—	—	—	—	—	8
TOTAL HOURS PER WEEK	35	25	25	25	25	20	25

Religious instruction is made the fundamental object of the system of public instruction. The program includes: prayers and religious hymns; religious talks; comments on the prayers; episodes from the Old and New Testament; lessons on the *Pater,* the life of Jesus, the Commandments; lessons on the history of the Catholic religion; lives of great Italian saints; principles of religious life and worship; the study of the sacraments; religious poems. The importance of religion in the Italian elementary school curriculum may be seen from the fact that school authorities are obliged to consult the local ecclesiastical authorities as to the qualification of candidates to teach religion.

A considerable part of the school time in each of the five elementary grades is devoted to the study of the Italian language, practical subjects such as gardening, domestic science, manual training, drawing and arithmetic. The teaching of writing, reading, and the content subjects which formed the principal aim of the old school, have now passed to secondary rank and have assumed characteristics of an entirely different nature. On the other hand, subjects nearest to child nature and those most suitable to the development of his mind are given first place in the elementary grades. For example, in art training the school no longer proposes to furnish the instruments, but it elevates the soul of the pupil to an appreciation of the beautiful; it no longer compels the child to accept mechanical formulas, but it follows and guides the child in his world of dreams, in his recreative life, in the joyful sense of the beautiful and the divine. Certain arts, especially drawing and singing, are very prominent in the curriculum. Probably the one outstanding mark of progress in art teaching in the elementary grades is the serious effort to study the problem from a scientific standpoint. Drawing, for example, has really begun to appear as a story-telling language, vivid with observed, memorized, and imagined pictures.

The Italian elementary school has as great a regard for the physical as well as for the mental development of its pupils and, quite apart from the specifically remedial action of the school medical officers, now does much to improve the physique of the children. Considerable time and attention are devoted to suitable games (largely musical in character) in the kindergartens, and

organized games are given in the elementary school proper. Professor Gentile states that a complete and perfect system of education should aim not only at the development of the spirit but of the body as well. "For the pupil is not solely mind. He has a body also; and these terms, body and spirit, must be conceived in such close connection and in such intimate conjunction that the health of the one be dependent on the soundness of the other." He emphasizes the fact that physical education should and must be encouraged, as spiritual training and for the formation of character. "The teacher of physical education must always bear in mind that he is not dealing with *bodies* — bodies to be moved around, to be lined up, or rushed around a track. He, too, is training souls, and collaborates with all the teachers in the moral preparation and advancement of mankind."

The framers of the new programs have also been inspired by the spirit of patriotism. The elementary school must emphasize the spiritual unity of the nation. Teachers must arouse and strengthen national consciousness in the children by talks on the lives of the great Italian patriots, notably Garibaldi and Battisti, and comments on the lives of Italian martyrs during the period of independence. The picture of the Italian Sovereign must also be displayed in all classrooms.

In preparing the new programs of studies, the desire of the educational authorities is that children may add to their natural endowments the knowledge of books and modern methods without becoming standardized. The object is not to make over the children of the different localities into the same pattern but to train and direct their emotions without destroying their originality. Professor Henri Goy, Chief of the Information Service of the Sorbonne, commenting on the program of studies says that in comparison with the very recent programs of the French schools, the Italian programs mark "a sharper break from the past, and a more decided leap towards the future."[1]

TEXT-BOOKS

The Royal Decree of March 11, 1923, No. 737,[2] prescribes that text-books not in the regular list or in the supplementary

[1]Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement, 1923, V. 77, p. 223-231.
[2]See appendix F for full text of this decree.

lists published in *Bolletino Ufficiale* of the Ministry cannot be used in the schools. Text-books are examined by the educational supervisor with the assistance of a competent commission whose decision applies to the use of the book in all the schools of the Kingdom, unless the book is especially referred to a particular region. Appeals against the decision of the commission may be made to the Minister.

Authors and publishers, therefore, who desire to introduce a book in the schools must make application to the supervisor of the region in which they reside, or to the supervisor of the region in which the book is to be used. For this examination there is a charge of 75 lire for books for the first two classes, and 100 lire for all other books. The following classes of books are not accepted for examination: books prepared by a group of teachers, directors, or inspectors; books published anonymously or under a pseudonym, and books published by an association of authors totally or partly composed of school teachers or administrators.

As an illustration of the work that the commission has already accomplished it is sufficient to mention that out of 317 history and geography books examined, 101 failed of acceptance, 73 were approved for one year, 28 were found acceptable for teachers and libraries, and 125 were unqualifiedly approved. Out of 114 religious books examined 11 were approved and 29 disapproved. In arithmetic there were 350 books of which 95 were approved and 167 rejected. The number of readers examined was 1,710 of which 32 were approved and 222 rejected. A later report of the Ministerial Commission for the Examination of Elementary School Text-Books published in the *Bolletino Ufficiale* of the Ministry of Public Instruction on February 23, 1926, states that the percentage of books found unfit is decreasing. Out of 1,326 books examined, 949 were approved for class use, 100 were approved for libraries, and 277 were not approved. These figures are sufficient to show that heretofore many books have been published and used for the education of children which are considered inadequate.

THE 1923 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CENSUS

One of the best general measures of the efficiency of the schools is the extent to which they succeed in getting children into school

and in keeping them there. So that on assuming the office of Minister of Public Instruction, Professor Gentile ordered a general elementary school census. This report which was published in 1923, shows that the total number of public elementary schools in Italy in 1922-1923 was 86,366 with 112,073 teachers and 3,987,763 pupils in 1921-1922. No recent figures on private elementary schools are available but in 1907-08 there were 6,534 of these schools with 148,081 pupils. Even allowing for an increase in the number of students during recent years in private institutions, it is clear that fully 95 per cent of the children attend government schools. Since the percentage of pupils in the private institutions is a negligible factor, these will not be considered further in this study.

Gentile has sought to answer three questions concerning the attracting and holding power of the school:

1. Are the children of school age in school?
2. How long does the system succeed in holding the children in school?
3. How regular is the promotion of children through the grades?

The answers to these questions will reveal the scope of the school system, the extent to which Italians now believe in education and are giving it to their children, the ages during which the children are being educated, and the smoothness with which the curriculum and the supervisory system is working.

A rough measure of the extent to which the schools of Italy have succeeded in assembling the children for educational purposes is provided by the percentage of total population enrolled in the schools. Taking the population of Italy in 1922 as 39 million, the percentage of the total population enrolled in the elementary schools was 10.27, and in the secondary schools the per cent was 0.80. It is of interest to compare these rates with those of other countries, although it is difficult to make statistical comparisons between the school systems of various countries. Nevertheless, if we keep closely in mind the factors which contribute to differences in results a general comparison is of considerable administrative value. The following table shows comparative percentages of

the population enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools of Italy and other countries in recent years:

	Elementary		Secondary	
Country	*P. C.*	*Years*	*P. C.*	*Years*
Italy	10.27	1922-23	0.80	1919-20
United States (continental)	17.88	1920	2.04	1922
France	11.4	1920-21	0.39	1923
Japan	14.9	1920	0.53	1920
Porto Rico	17.88	1923	0.63	1925
Philippines	9.41	1923	0.43	1924
Hawaii	15.5	1920	0.76	1920

A further fact indicated by the 1923 census is that the compulsory school law had not been properly enforced. Out of 4,846,009 children between six and twelve years of age, 3,987,763, or 84 per cent, were registered in the schools. The percentage of enrolment varied from a maximum of 97 in Lombardy to a minimum of 41 in Calabria. The report also shows that not all the children registered actually attended classes. Only 3,350,-746, or 69.1 per cent of the total number of children between six and twelve years of age, were in attendance. The percentage of attendance varied from a maximum of 94 in Venitia to a minimum of 32 in Calabria.

Even in the United States, in spite of the fact that the enrolment and the average daily attendance in schools are steadily increasing, non-attendance remains the weak spot in the school system, according to figures presented in a research bulletin of the National Education Association in December 1926. According to the bulletin, school attendance in the United States has increased from 62.3 per cent of the total enrolment in 1880 to 78.8 per cent in 1924. Despite this encouraging trend reported by the investigators, the 1920 census discloses that 1,437,783 children between seven and fourteen did not attend a single day of school between September 1, 1919 and January 1, 1920. The survey indicates that the chief difficulty in this matter arises not through the need of compulsory school attendance laws, since every state in the Union has passed such laws, but through lack of enforcement of the existing statutes.

The second question to be considered is the number of pupils who complete the entire elementary school course. The 1923

school census does not contain any statistics on this point. In 1916-1917 out of a general total of 3,692,024 pupils in the elementary schools, 3,167,245, were in the lower grades (I, II, III) and 524,779 in the higher grades (IV, V, VI). Therefore, the pupils in classes IV to VI are less than one-sixth of the number in the first three grades. Evidently, then for the majority, education has ended at the age of nine years.

The third and perhaps the most important question is the percentage of children promoted in the various grades. Here again reference shall be made to the 1923 census. Out of 3,350,746 children in attendance only 2,136,374, or 63.8 per cent, were promoted in the various grades. In this case there is slight variation in the percentage in the different regions of Italy, the maximum being in Piedmont with 69 per cent and the minimum in Calabria with 57 per cent.

Another method of establishing the effectiveness of elementary education is through the percentage of illiterates. It must be remembered, however, that one of the gravest misfortunes inherited by the young Kingdom of Italy from former bad governments was the high percentage of illiteracy. But this decreased from 68.8 per cent in 1871, the year of the first census after the unification, to 37.6 per cent in 1911, when, of a total population of nearly 35,000,000, approximately 13,000,000 above six years of age could not read or write. The illiteracy figures shown by the 1921 census are not available but later advices indicate that illiteracy is now under 30 per cent.

The percentage of illiteracy increases as one goes southward. Calabria and Basilicata show the highest percentage, the plateau and mountain provinces the lowest. Fifty per cent illiteracy occurs in regions south of Rome. In fact, Italy's great problem is how to educate the South, where there still exist regions with 70 per cent illiteracy.

Some of the general principles blamed for the absence of better results have been: First, lack of continuity of policy due to the fact that the office of Minister of Public Instruction has been a political position. There have been over fifty ministers since 1861, and only a few have been educators. Second, lack of co-operation between the strong central administration and

the local authorities. For instance, in the poorer communities where the labor of children in the fields was needed, the mayor whose re-election depended upon the popular vote, failed even to list the children of school age. Third, lack of funds resulting in a shortage of suitable school buildings. Since the nation has been overburdened with debt and is lacking in national wealth, the educational system has not received the financial support necessary to its proper development.

COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE

Until 1904 children had to attend public schools until their ninth year. In 1904 the limit was extended to the twelfth year. The Decree of December 31, 1923, No. 3126, aims to bring about the compulsory attendance of every child from six to fourteen years of age at day or evening schools. The compulsory school law has been extended to blind and deaf children. In this connection it is of interest to note that the Government has created a normal school for training teachers for the blind. For this purpose the State has appropriated an additional sum of 2,000,000 lire annually.

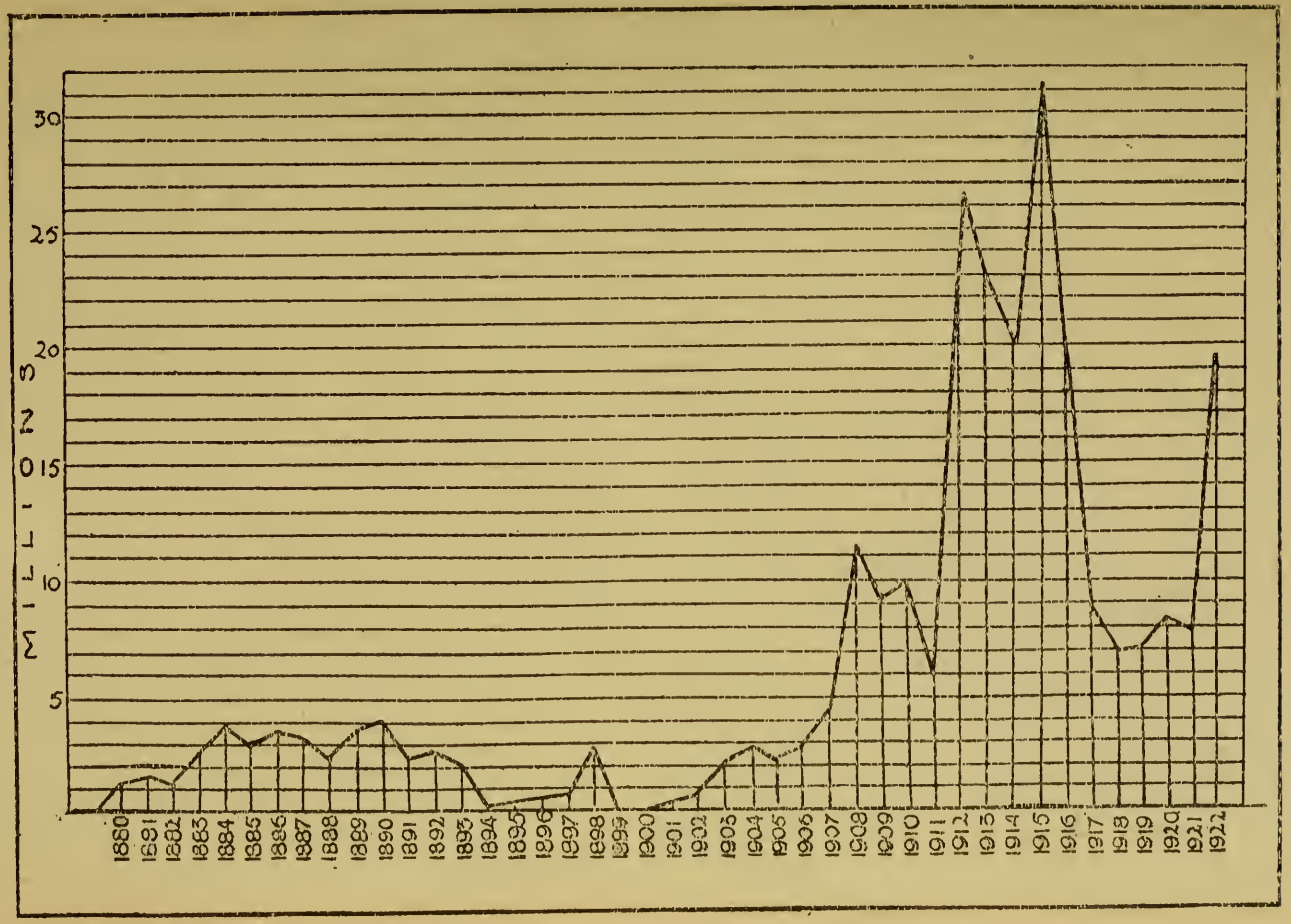
Control of the attendance of children rests, first of all, with the mayor of the municipality who publishes and posts every year the list of all children who must attend school. The notice must be on the wall of the town hall for one month before the opening of school. The mayors and school inspectors are held responsible for the enforcement of the law. Progressive penalties in the way of fines are provided both for parents and for employers who profit from children of school age.

To facilitate the school attendance of children in agricultural centers the school director is authorized to establish special hours and calendars of instruction to conform with agricultural conditions. Special calendars and hours may also be adopted, wherever necessary, for mixed school populations by reducing for each group of pupils the duration of each lesson.

BUILDINGS

Great difficulties exist in Italy at the present time in supplying the schools with adequate housing. A report published in 1923 by the Minister of Public Instruction indicates the extremely

State Grants to Municipalities for Construction of School Buildings



unsatisfactory situation in the matter of school buildings. In Italy, in general, 45 per cent of the schools either lack certain necessary buildings entirely or have buildings very badly adapted to the purpose of instruction. Provinces in the south of Italy show as high as 98 per cent of the schools unhoused, or badly housed, and even in Lombardy which represents the best of all districts in Italy, slightly less than three-tenths of the schools are without buildings or lacking adequate accommodation. The Government has taken steps to remedy this situation by means of the Royal Decree of December 31, 1923, No. 3125 which provides substantial sums for the construction of new buildings. The State has assumed the responsibility of spending 1,000,000 lire annually for the next ten years for payment of interests on loans made for this purpose. The amount of the grants is based on local conditions and on the percentage of illiterates. For this purpose the municipalities have been divided into four classes. In 1923 the Minister of Public Instruction assumed the obligation of paying the interests on loans for the construction of school buildings in 289 communes amounting to a total of 106,416,050 lire.

CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS

The Royal Decree of October 31, 1923, No. 2410, divides the schools into classified and unclassified. The latter are further subdivided into temporary and subsidized. The classified schools are established and supported by school administrations and by the municipalities that preserve educational autonomy. The unclassified schools are administered by the Illiteracy Committee composed of five members of the boards of directors of delegated educational institutions. The Minister of Public Instruction is represented by a central inspector. Temporary schools are established where conditions are not suitable for the establishment of a classified school and are administered by educational associations appointed by the State. The temporary schools in autonomous municipalities are established by the municipality and may be administered either by the municipality itself or by educational associations. In all other places, the temporary schools are established by the educational supervisor.

To avoid overcrowding of the classes, the decree also prescribes

that each classified school must not have more than sixty pupils. Temporary schools with a lower course must be organized wherever there are forty children of school age. They are to be kept open provided that the attendance is not less than fifteen and the number of pupils promoted not less than ten. Schools which because of topographical conditions cannot be attended by more than fifteen children, are administered by private persons who receive a subsidy from the State, the amount of which depends on the number of children who, at the end of the school year, receive the lower elementary school certificate. These schools which are known as subsidized schools may be opened, with the authorization of the education supervisor in parishes and in industrial and agricultural establishments. In such cases the teacher need not possess the qualification degree.

Under this system it is not only possible to provide schools for everybody, but the State may also save money, insofar as the teachers depending on the delegated organizations receive special financial remuneration, in proportion to the number of lessons given and the educational results obtained.

The 1923 elementary school report revealed that only 270 of the 8,354 municipalities were administering their own schools, most of them being in Liguria, Piedmont, Lombardy, and Venetia. When the law of June 4, 1911, No. 487, was passed a large number of municipalities were anxious to administer their respective schools; but since then many municipalities on account of the impoverished conditions of their treasuries had found it impossible to preserve this autonomy and had been only too glad to relinquish the privilege.

THE TEACHING STAFF AND TEACHER TRAINING

The elementary school reforms could not have given any satisfactory results without a similar radical revision of the normal schools and of the legislation affecting teachers. Professor Gentile and his staff of experts soon realized that the crisis existing in the school was largely one of quality of personnel and was especially serious among the young teachers, who on account of the War had been compelled to discontinue their studies. Furthermore, it must be remembered that during and after the War many

persons had secured teaching positions in the elementary schools without the necessary academic qualifications.

The surest method of dealing with this situation was to hold a competitive examination for prospective teachers, not only because it would give the authorities an opportunity to test the general and academic preparation of the applicants, but also because it would compel the applicants to return to their books which had been neglected and which in some cases had not ever been seriously studied. In other words, the object was to emphasize, by requiring a better preparation, the importance and dignity of the office to which they sought admission. The Ministerial Decree of April 12, 1923, authorized the competitive examinations for primary school teachers. In all there were 23,819 applicants of whom 20,271 actually took the written test. Of the latter, 7,451, or less than one-third, were admitted to the oral examinations. The results of the oral examinations lowered the percentage of successful candidates to about one-fourth of the total number. These figures are in themselves sufficient to show the crisis existing in the normal schools in Italy, with its necessary detrimental effects on elementary instruction.

The examination commissions in their reports published in the *Bollettino Ufficiale* of the Ministry of Public Instruction stated that in general, the tests revealed immature thought, insufficient preparation, and a serious lack of knowledge of simple facts. Some candidates, for example, did not know the names of provinces, districts, the more important roadways, the industries, and products of the regions in which they had always lived. In some subjects, and this is especially true of scientific subjects, many candidates did not know at all or knew very imperfectly the very facts that are taught in the elementary schools; others made statements so erroneous that they would cause surprise even if made by pupils in the lower grades. In one region it was found that several applicants had a very insufficient knowledge of such masterpieces as Manzoni's *I Promessi Sposi*. But the most discouraging result was the revelation of undeveloped and immature minds in a large percentage of applicants and an inability to understand simple problems relating to the education of the masses. This general lack of preparation on the part of Italian teachers is not unique.

In the United States much agitation has in recent years led to a serious consideration of the very general lack of training on the part of teachers. It has been estimated that from 25 to 40 per cent of the teachers in public schools in the United States, especially the one-room rural schools, are without a high school training. Probably less than one quarter of the teaching staff of all schools is made up of normal school graduates.

In order to raise the standard of elementary school teachers it was necessary to raise their status. This was done by means of the Royal Decree of October 7, 1923, No. 2132, which reorganized the legal status of school teachers. It stipulates that appointments must be based on competitive examinations which are to be held every two years. The age limit for entering the teaching profession is thirty-five years. Should the list of successful candidates in a particular region be exhausted before the end of the two years, the eligible applicants from other regions may be appointed to fill vacant positions. This system is said to remove the possibility of appointing inadequate teachers. Furthermore, all new teachers receive a temporary assignment, and they obtain a permanent appointment only after the teachers already in the service have been transferred. In this manner, it is not possible to assign new teachers to the better positions.

New teachers are appointed as adjuncts and are promoted to the permanent grade after a probationary period of three years. They are divided into three classes depending on whether they teach in boys', girls' or mixed schools. An examination is required for passing from one class to another, but the passage of teachers from a mixed class to the female or male class is permitted without examination.

Elementary school teachers are promoted on the basis of seniority provided, of course, that their work is satisfactory. Each educational director is required to submit an annual report on the work of each teacher under his jurisdiction. This report gives complete information on the ability, merits, family conditions, education and faithfulness of each teacher. The report also contains statistical information and other useful data on the condition of the school.

The question of salaries of elementary school teachers was disposed of in the Royal Decree of December 31, 1923, No. 2996, which fixed a new schedule. This decree in addition to large increases in salaries of state teachers also provides better salaries for teachers in autonomous municipalities, and for those in schools administered by supervisors in rural communities. The salaries of teachers before the reform varied from a minimum of 3,100 lire to a maximum of 5,600 lire yearly. The present salaries vary from a minimum of 5,600 lire to a maximum of 9,500 lire yearly, in addition to the special compensation for active service varying from 300 to 500 lire yearly. Indemnities for teachers in larger cities are discontinued, but 400 lire are given after eight years of service, and 500 lire for each succeeding period of eight years of service. Teachers with an alternate schedule receive 800 lire in addition to the regular salary; formerly only 300 lire were paid for alternate program.

An important question to be answered in regard to the teaching staff of the schools of Italy is: Are there enough teachers employed to care for all children of school age? This question may be answered by referring to the 1923 census which shows that out of 62,013 teachers in municipalities in which the schools were administered by the State in 1919-1920, only two-thirds had what is considered an adequate number of pupils (from 26 to 60); 9,805 teachers had very crowded classes (from 61 to more than 81 pupils); 10,653 teachers had less than 25 pupils, and 1,109 teachers had less than 10 pupils. Manifestly, the teaching staff is inadequate in numbers to care for all the children who should be in school. Nor are there enough teachers to give satisfactory instruction to the pupils now enrolled. Even supposing such a distribution of population and of schools that each teacher had about fifty pupils, this number is too large to be cared for effectively in any but the most formal type of school work. The deficiency in the number of teachers employed is not entirely due to the lack of candidates for teaching positions who meet certification requirements. Hundreds of such persons are to be found throughout Italy. The deficiency exists because of lack of funds to employ more teachers. The obvious inference from these facts is

that more funds are needed for education so that more teachers may be employed. The total estimated budget for the year ending June 30, 1924, for the Ministry of Public Instruction was 911,479,091 lire, including ordinary and extraordinary expenditures. Of this amount 186 million lire were for elementary education.

TEACHER TRAINING IN NORMAL INSTITUTES

What is the nature of the training that teachers receive? Previous to the Gentile reform, teachers were prepared in normal schools whose course of study covered three years and which were comparable to the secondary schools of the second grade. Students were admitted to the normal schools usually from the technical or complementary schools. As a result of the Gentile reform the normal school has been replaced by the normal institute, a strictly professional school, which aims solely at the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools. Elementary school graduates are required to pass an entrance examination for admission to the lower course of the normal institute. It is important to note that one of the first measures introduced by Gentile was the reduction in the number of normal schools from 140 to 87. The explanation for this action was that the normal schools were being crowded by young students of both sexes who had no desire to enter the teaching profession. It seems that their main object was to obtain a diploma which was very popular among Italians. The Gentile reform aims to divert these students to other types of schools where their work would be more beneficial to society. The locations of normal institutes have been fixed and can be changed only by a royal decree; the total number cannot be changed.

The course of the normal institute is divided into two divisions —a lower course of four years, and a higher one of three years. The program of studies in both divisions is shown in the following table:

Subject	Lower Course Hours per Week I	II	III	IV
Italian language	8	4	4	4
Latin language	—	6	6	6
History and geog.	4	2	2	2
Mathematics	3	2	2	3
Foreign language	—	4	4	4
Drawing	3	2	2	2
Music and singing	2	2	2	2
Musical instrument*	2	2	2	2
TOTAL	20	22	22	23

Subject	Higher Course Hours per Week I	II	III
Italian language and literature	4	5	4
Latin language and literature	5	4	4
Philosophy & pedagogy	4	5	6
History	3	4	4
Mathematics & physics	3	4	4
Natural sciences, geography, and hygiene	3	2	3
Music and singing	2	1	1
Musical instrument*	2	2	2
Drawing	2	1	1
TOTAL	26	26	27

An examination of the foregoing program shows that in the lower course special emphasis is given to the Italian and Latin languages. In the higher course, emphasis is given to the Italian and Latin languages and literatures and also to philosophy and pedagogy. The former normal school has in reality been transformed into a classical school. The law requires that to every normal institute there be annexed an elementary school and a kindergarten for practice work on the part of students in normal institutes.

Students are required to pass an entrance examination for admission to the first class of the higher course of the normal institute. This examination is based on the subjects studied in the lower course. Examinations in all literary subjects are based on reports submitted by the students showing what books have been read in preparation for these tests. The examiners must ascertain not only whether the students have actually read the books but whether they have interpreted the spirit of the works. The final examination for the qualifying diploma includes the subjects of study in the higher course of the normal institute. The examination in Italian literature is limited to the principal authors. As in the case of the examination in the lower course, special atten-

*Elective.

tion is given to the ability of the student to express himself clearly and concisely. Since students from normal institutes are preparing themselves for the teaching profession, the examination in the sciences emphasizes clearness and precision in the presentation of the subject matter. The examiners must above all determine whether the candidates have the subject matter well-organized in their minds and are able to see and explain the connection between the various phases of the subject.

The fees for the lower course of the normal institute are 130 lire annually and for the higher course 180 lire yearly plus 200 lire for examination and diploma.

The total number of students in the normal schools and special courses for teachers in 1920-1921 was 36,562, of whom 2,866 were males and 33,696 females. The official statistics also show that there has been a remarkable increase in the number of normal school students within the last twenty years. This is shown in the following table:

	YEARS					
	1901-1902		1910-1911		1920-1921	
	Male	*Female*	*Male*	*Female*	*Male*	*Female*
TOTAL PUPILS	1,266	8,207	3,323	14,630	2,866	33,696
Government schools ..	1,192	6,681	3,105	12,706	1,742	28,185
Accredited schools ...	74	1,526	218	1,924	282	4,161
Special courses	——	——	——	——	842	1,340
TOTAL SCHOOLS.....	127		135		213	
Government	81		113		140	
Accredited	46		22		29	
Special courses	—		—		44	

It is important to note that the vast majority of normal students attend the government schools. Only 4,443 students, or about 12 per cent of the total 36,562, were in the accredited schools in 1920-1921.

POST-GRADUATE TRAINING FOR TEACHERS

It is primarily due to the efforts of Gentile whose principal aim was to reawaken the interest of teachers in their schools that much is being done in every region and in almost every city of Italy in providing post-graduate courses for teachers. The bulletins of the supervisors are sufficient to show the vast amount of work that is

being done in this connection. Some of these graduate courses for teachers are of a permanent nature while others have been established for a limited period. To illustrate the variety of these courses, it is sufficient to mention the work being done in Milan. In February, 1924, the following subjects were given: three supplementary courses in the classics—one in Latin and philosophy, a second, in Italian, pedagogy, mathematics, Latin, Greek, history, and a third in Latin; two courses in hygiene and child culture; a course in music; a course in recitation; a course on the methods of the new school. Special mention should be made of the supplementary courses in music being given by various organizations.

Gentile is also of the opinion that elementary school teachers should participate in the work and studies of the universities. He warns that the training given to elementary schol teachers tends to be dogmatic. "The teacher", he says, "is led to look upon learning as something quite finished, rounded out, enclosed in definite formulas, rules and laws, all of which have been ascertained once for all and are no longer susceptible of revision." In other words, the teacher is inclined to look upon his learning not as a developing organism, but as something definitely moulded and stereotyped. From this he concludes that a certain kind of knowledge may serve as a corner for the whole school edifice. Gentile, therefore, warns teachers "to be constantly on their guard against the dangers of routine, against the belief that they have but to repeat the same old lesson in the same classroom, to the same kind of distant, blank faces, staring at them in dreary uniformity from the same benches." Teachers may be called educators only as long as they feel that each minute of their life's work is a new minute, and that education, therefore, is a problem that constantly stimulates their ingenuity to an ever renewed solution.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary Education before the Gentile Reform

Previous to 1923 the problems affecting the Italian secondary school had been extensively studied by various educators. They all agreed that the solution of these problems involved numerous changes, improvements, and reconstructions. The prevalent opinion

was that the problems could be solved by greatly increasing the number of government and accredited schools and by facilitating the entrance of a heterogeneous and unprepared body of students. This explains the constant increase in the number of classes and a corresponding increase in the number of permanent, substitute and assistant instructors to the point where the authorities were compelled to appoint mediocre and even inadequate teachers by making the examinations unduly easy. This also explains the enormous increase in the expenditures, in the number of graduates, and in the number of subsidized schools. Yet the status of culture was low. Some thought that this situation could be remedied by increasing the number of school hours, by adding various subjects to the curriculum, and by crowding the programs with all those subjects that appeared useful to man and society: civics, agriculture, domestic science, manual training, singing.

The complexity of these problems gave rise to numerous disputes and complaints on the part of the teaching and administrative staffs. In fact, nearly all of the work of the Section of the Board of the Superior Council for Secondary Education consisted in settling these complaints. Although a legislative and administrative machinery was created to foresee these difficulties, a simple but fundamental factor was apparently forgotten—the soul of the student. His culture was conceived as a total, a collection of theories, of disconnected, useless and obstructive lessons. And, in fact, very few of the students who at the end of the secondary school course when placed before the practical, complex and varied problems of life were able to grasp their practical significance. The object of education, according to the recent reforms, is to give the student the necessary consciousness of his being, to enable him to transcend the empirical aims of his individualistic "ego," and to prepare him for the fundamental problems of life.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL REFORM

The reform of the Italian secondary school was undoubtedly the most radical of all because, more than any other type of institution, it revealed the inadequacy of its organization and the sterility of its studies. With the inspiration obtained from some for-

mer bills presented to Parliament, and with the advice of two or three intimate friends—Ernesto Codignola, Professor at the Higher Normal School of Florence; Lombardo-Radice, Professor at the University of Catania; and Leonardi Severi—Gentile succeeded in establishing a new organization of the Italian secondary school. It was evident that it was necessary to reform secondary education in its relation to the elementary school and the university, in its internal structure and educational methods. Above all, it was necessary to eliminate all the superfluous subjects in the curriculum and to improve the organization and work of the instructors.

The Royal Decree of May 6, 1923, No. 1054[1] clearly establishes the various types of secondary schools and determines the object of each. But the real significance of the reform as outlined in this decree cannot be understood unless it is studied together with the new programs approved by the Royal Decree of October 14, 1923, No. 2345[2]. These two decrees which form the basis of the secondary school reform constitutes an organic and inseparable unit, so that it is impossible to understand the reform unless these decrees are studied as a whole.

The Royal Decree of May 6, 1923, No. 1054, divides the secondary schools into three categories, corresponding to the three diverse aims of secondary studies:

1.—Schools whose object is to prepare students for the exercise of certain professions (technical institute), and to the elementary school profession (normal institute).

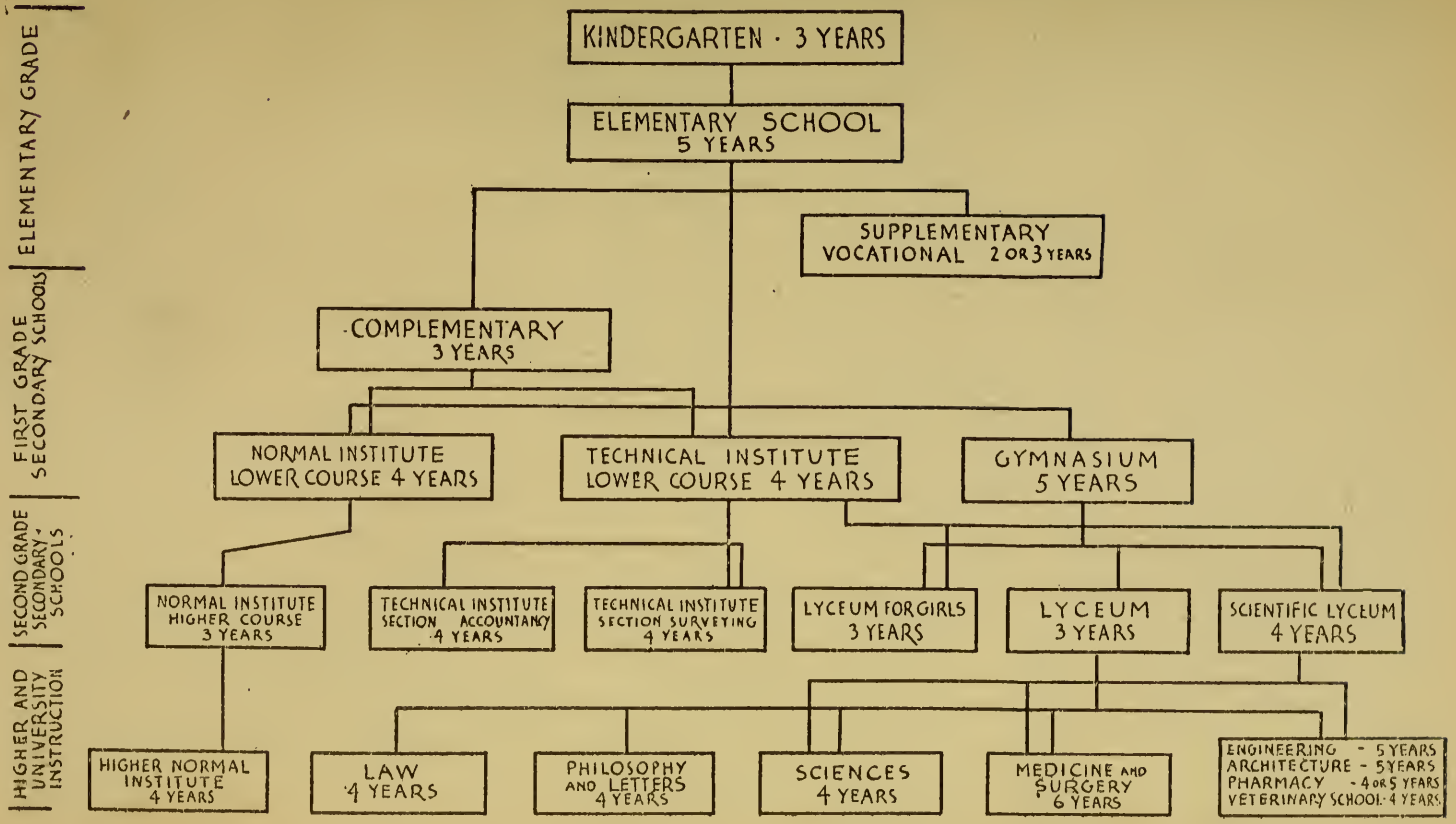
2.—Schools whose object is to prepare students for higher institutions (lyceum-gymnasium and scientific lyceum). The lyceum for girls whose object is to supplement the general culture of young girls who do not intend to continue their studies in higher institutions nor to obtain a professional diploma is included in this class.

3.—Schools whose object is to complete the instruction imparted in the elementary school (complementary school).

These categories were re-established rather than created since they had existed in theory before, but their aims and characteristics

[1]See appendix D for full text of this decree.
[2]See appendix E for full text of this decree.

ORGANIZATION OF STUDIES ACCORDING TO GENTILE REFORM


ELEMENTARY GRADE
FIRST GRADE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
SECOND GRADE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
HIGHER AND UNIVERSITY INSTRUCTION
KINDERGARTEN · 3 YEARS
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL 5 YEARS
SUPPLEMENTARY VOCATIONAL 2 OR 3 YEARS
COMPLEMENTARY 3 YEARS
NORMAL INSTITUTE LOWER COURSE 4 YEARS
TECHNICAL INSTITUTE LOWER COURSE 4 YEARS
GYMNASIUM 5 YEARS
NORMAL INSTITUTE HIGHER COURSE 3 YEARS
TECHNICAL INSTITUTE SECTION ACCOUNTANCY 4 YEARS
TECHNICAL INSTITUTE SECTION SURVEYING 4 YEARS
LYCEUM FOR GIRLS 3 YEARS
LYCEUM 3 YEARS
SCIENTIFIC LYCEUM 4 YEARS
HIGHER NORMAL INSTITUTE 4 YEARS
LAW 4 YEARS
PHILOSOPHY AND LETTERS 4 YEARS
SCIENCES 4 YEARS
MEDICINE AND SURGERY 6 YEARS
ENGINEERING - 5 YEARS
ARCHITECTURE - 5 YEARS
PHARMACY - 4 OR 5 YEARS
VETERINARY SCHOOL - 4 YEARS

as distinctive types of schools had begun to be abused and indistinct. By the foregoing categories it was the intention to make each branch of secondary teaching a definite and rather close unit.

The Decree of May 6,1923, also establishes a general division among these types of schools on the basis of grade of studies. Schools of the lower grade are the complementary school, gymnasium, lower course of the technical institute, and the lower course of the normal institute. Schools of the higher grade are the lyceum, the higher course of the technical institute, the higher course of the normal institute, the scientific lyceum, and the lyceum for girls. The secondary institutes, in accordance with this decree, are as follows:

THE COMPLEMENTARY SCHOOL

The object of this school which is really a combination of the former complementary and technical schools is to supplement elementary teaching and to impart a general education. The complementary school does not lead to any higher institution, but its graduates may, after passing a supplementary examination, be admitted to the normal or technical institute. The duration of the course in the complementary school is three years. It prepares students for positions in skilled industries, in commerce, in overseas administration, and for general non-professional work. The program of studies is distributed as follows:

	Hours per Week		
Subject	*I*	*II*	*III*
Italian language	4	4	3
History and geography	4	4	3
Foreign language	4	4	4
Mathematics	4	3	3
Natural sciences	—	2	2
Bookkeeping	—	3	3
Drawing	4	3	3
Penmanship	2	—	—
Stenography	—	1	2
TOTAL	22	24	23

Since the object of the complementary school is to provide a general education for the mass of the population, and since, therefore, the studies do not require intellectual qualities above the average, the number of classes have not been limited, although

no complementary school may have more than twenty-four classes unless there are more than thirty five pupils in each class. The number of all other secondary schools is fixed by law and no new ones may be established except by special law. Furthermore, all secondary schools, except the complementary, in view of their specific aims are proportioned quantitatively to the social needs and qualitatively to the special aptitudes of the different sections of the country.

THE TECHNICAL INSTITUTE

The object of the technical institute is to prepare for the exercise of certain professions. The entire course which lasts eight years consists of two divisions—the first four constituting the lower, and the last four the higher course. The lower course has one section; the higher has two sections: (1) land surveying, and (2) commerce and accountancy. The distribution of the subjects in the lower course is as follows:

	Hours per Week			
Subject	*I*	*II*	*III*	*IV*
Italian language	7	6	6	5
Latin language	7	7	6	6
History and geography	4	4	2	2
Mathematics	2	2	4	4
Drawing	4	2	2	2
Foreign language	—	4	4	4
Stenography	—	—	1	2
TOTAL	24	25	25	25

The higher division may have one or both of the sections mentioned above. The Section of Land Surveying prepares for the profession of surveyor. The Section of Commerce and Accountancy prepares for administrative and commercial positions. The distribution of the subjects in each of these sections is as follows:

	Section of Agriculture Hours per Week			
Subject	*I*	*II*	*III*	*IV*
Italian literature..	5	5	—	—
History	5	5	—	—
Natural sciences & geography	3	3	2	—
Land surveying...	—	—	4	2
Rural bookkeeping	—	—	—	2
Surveying	—	—	—	4
Chemistry	—	3	3	3
Rural technology..	—	—	—	2
Drawing	4	—	—	—
Mathematics and physics	6	5	—	—
Construction and drawing	—	2	7	6
Topography and drawing	—	—	8	8
Rural legislation..	—	—	2	—
TOTAL	23	23	26	27

	Section of Commerce and Accountancy Hours per Week			
Subject	*I*	*II*	*III*	*IV*
Mathematics and physics	6	5	—	—
History	5	5	—	—
Italian literature..	5	5	—	—
Natural sciences & geography	3	3	2	2
Bookkeeping and accountancy	—	—	8	8
Law	—	—	7	5
Political economy.	—	—	2	4
Economics and statistics	—	—	—	4
First foreign lang..	2	2	—	—
Second foreign language	—	6	5	4
Penmanship	2	—	—	—
Indust. chemistry..	—	—	3	—
TOTAL	23	26	27	27

Each technical institute now has one complete course of classes in the lower four years and in each section of the higher division. However, one-third of the technical institutes may have as many as three complete courses in the lower division, and in the section of commerce and accountancy.

The recent changes introduced in the technical institute tend to make teaching less mechanical and theoretical, more practical and individual. Two important changes have been introduced in the technical institute. The first is the study of Latin in the lower division. This, according to Gentile, was done "to reveal the Italian nature and character of the laboring classes." The second important change in the technical institute is the prolongation of the course from seven to eight years. Previous to the

Gentile reform it was possible for graduates of technical institutes to be admitted to the university, but at the present time the technical institute does not lead to the university.

THE CLASSICAL LYCEUM-GYMNASIUM

The object of the classical lyceum-gymnasium is to prepare students for the four university faculties and higher institutions. In this institute the humanities and history are emphasized from the very beginning. The course in the gymnasium lasts five years, the first three constituting the lower course, the last two he higher. The lyceum which follows the gymnasium lasts three years and prepares students for the maturity examination for entrance to the universities. The subjects of study in the gymnasium and lyceum are distributed as follows:

	Gymnasium Hours per Week				
Subject	*I*	*II*	*III*	*IV*	*V*
Italian language	7	7	7	5	5
Latin language	8	7	7	6	6
Greek language	—	—	—	4	4
Foreign language	—	3	4	4	4
History and geography	5	5	4	3	3
Mathematics	1	2	2	2	2
TOTAL	21	24	24	24	24

	Lyceum Hours per Week		
Subject	*I*	*II*	*III*
Italian literature	4	4	3
Latin literature	4	4	3
Greek literature	4	4	3
History	3	3	3
Philosophy and political economy	3	3	3
Mathematics & physics	4	4	5
Natural sciences, chemistry, & geography	3	2	3
History of art	—	2	2
TOTAL	25	26	25

The recent law stipulates that each lyceum-gymnasium must have one complete course of classes, although as many as four complete courses may be established in not more than one-third of these institutions.

THE SCIENTIFIC LYCEUM

The object of the scientific lyceum is to develop and strengthen the preparation of students expecting to enter the university faculties of science, and medicine and surgery, or the schools of engineering, architecture, and pharmacy. It is a new type of institution somewhat similar to the physico-mathematical section of the former technical institute and modern lyceum. The course lasts

four years and admits students who have completed the gymnasium or the lower division of the technical institute. The program of studies which emphasizes the sciences includes the following subjects:

Subject	*Hours per Week*			
	I	*II*	*III*	*IV*
Italian literature	4	4	3	3
Latin literature	4	4	4	4
Foreign language	4	4	3	3
History	3	3	2	2
Philosophy and political economy	—	—	4	4
Mathematics and physics	5	5	6	6
Natural sciences, chemistry, and geography	3	3	2	2
Drawing	3	2	2	2
TOTAL	26	25	26	26

THE LYCEUM FOR GIRLS

The lyceum for girls like the scientific lyceum is a new type of institution and admits girls who have completed the course in the classical gymnasium or in the lower division of the technical institute. Practically it serves to reduce attendance of students in the normal institutes and classical lyceums. Its object is to impart instruction to young girls desiring to supplement their general culture but who do not intend to go on with higher studies nor hope to obtain a professional diploma. The number of lyceums for girls has been limited to twenty for the entire Kingdom. The complete course lasts three years and includes the following subjects:

Subject	*Hours per Week*		
	I	*II*	*III*
Italian & Latin languages & literatures	6	6	6
History and geography	3	3	3
Philosophy, law, & political economy	3	3	3
History of art*	2	2	2
French*	4	4	4
German or English	4	4	4
Drawing	3	3	3
Music, singing, dancing	2	2	2
Musical instrument*	2	2	2
Domestic science and economy	3	3	2
TOTAL	24	24	23

*Elective.

VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

In addition to these secondary schools there are also strictly vocational schools—agricultural, industrial, commercial, higher technical, etc. The Gentile reform does not affect these institutions, as they do not come under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Public Instruction. They are under the control of the Ministry of National Economy.

CURRICULA AND IDEALS OF SECONDARY INSTITUTES

The new programs of studies in secondary schools represent the most genuine expression of the new idealistic philosophy. Mention has already been made of the fact that before the recent reforms the book was not only the sole source of knowledge but actually dominated the school. This situation was aggravated by the fact that efforts were often made to secure the maximum information from the more abridged sources. Professor Ugo Spirito in a recent article states that "this purely quantitative conception of education had completely discredited the school, where all study was reduced to a purely abstract mnemonic effort." The Gentile programs take instruction back to the live sources of culture—the classics which mould the personality of the student.

The new programs of the Italian secondary schools contain many interesting features. Latin and the classics are given a prominent position in the curriculum. In fact, the strength and importance of secondary education in Italy have always rested on the devotion to the classical tradition. Latin has been introduced in all types of secondary schools except the complementary. In Italy as in France, Latin has a stronger hold than in English speaking countries, first because of their general reverence for literary culture, naturally involving the classics, and secondly because Latin is the direct source of their own language.

It must be clearly understood, however, that the study of the ancient classics, according to the Gentile reform, does not imply the simple study of grammar and words. Rather it is referred to the ancient world as a whole, the writings, and all that the books contain or suggest. The object is to use Latin and Greek to mould the spiritual personality of students. They are required

to study the various stages and the most critical periods through which Italy and her people have attained the present civilization. A certain amount of time must naturally be spent to acquire a knowledge of the language, but after this preliminary stage, the new programs require students to read the original texts in such a manner as to "live", as it were, in the classical world. They must study seriously the masterpieces of classical literature, the most eloquent documents of the spiritual world from which Italy took its origin. One of the most serious defects of the pre-Gentile school was that it aimed to teach only the grammar and syntax of these languages. In behalf of this step which confines secondary education in Italy to the narrowest limits of choice that obtain in the Western world, it is argued with justice that the culture of Italy is distinctly Græco-Roman. Greece and Rome are, in fact, the sources of the intellectual life of all civilized modern peoples, especially Italians. Both Greece and Rome have given us poetry and philosophy, oratory and history, sculpture and architecture. We have inherited from them geometry, and the rudiments of the sciences of observation, grammar, logic, politics, law, almost everything in the sphere of humanistic subjects. The Romans and Greeks invented all forms of poetical literature, the epic, the lyric, the dramatic, the pastoral, the didactic, the satiric, the epigrammatic. Ancient history is the key to all history, not only to political history, but to the record also of the changing thoughts and beliefs of races and people. Greek history is instructive because it sets before us a host of striking characters in the fields of thought and imaginative creation as well as in the fields of political strife, the abstract and the concrete always in the closest touch with one another. So also Roman institutions are almost as fertile by their example as the Greek mind was by its ideas.

For an Italian youth to carry in his mind such pictures of a long-past world and turn back to them from the anxieties of the present time gives him a refreshment of spirit as well as a wider view of what man has been, and is, and may be hereafter. To have immortal verse rise every day into his memory, to recall the sombre grandeur of Aeschylus and the pathetic grandeur of Virgil, to gaze at the soaring flight and many coloured radiance of Pindar,

to be soothed by the sweetly flowing rhythms of Theocritus what an unfailing delight he must experience in this.

A method of estimating the importance of Latin in the secondary schools of Italy is by examining the programs of the maturity examination for students of the classical lyceum. The written examination in this subject consists of (1) a translation from Latin into Italian of about thirty printed lines of a passage taken from an author of the golden or silver period; (2) a translation from Italian into Latin of about twenty printed lines taken from an Italian classic. The use of the dictionary is permitted. The oral examination which lasts thirty minutes is based on the following subjects:

1.—The examination of a period of Roman history including such writers as Livy, Sallust, Tacitus. Students are also required to translate at sight a passage from Caesar.

2.—Elements of philosophy and Roman culture, based on the following sources: Cicero, Seneca, Quintilian, Plinius. Students are required to interpret a passage taken from these sources.

3.—Aesthetic qualities of the principal Latin poets: Lucretius Catullus, Horace, Tibullus, Propertius, Ovid. Students are also required to interpret some of the lyrics of Horace chosen by the examiners, and the lyrics of other poets selected from a list of passages studied and indicated by the students.

4.—History of Roman customs with translation of passages from the *Satires* and *Epistles* of Horace or from one of the *Epigrams* of Martial. Or the palliate comedy with exposition and translation of one of the comedies of Plato and Terence.

5.—Christian philosophy including translation of selected pages from Lactantius, Tertullian, and Saint Augustine.

6.—Principal Roman writers.

7.—Principal monuments of Roman art as described in a classical manual.

The scope and content of all other subjects have similarly been modified. In the Italian examination the secondary school student is no longer required to write a composition. This has been eliminated and has been substituted by a report on an assigned subject. Literature is taught to develop taste, interest, and appreciation. Memory work has been entirely eliminated. In history

the student is no longer required to memorize insignificant dates, but he must study the various periods as the "consciousness" of his past from which his present and future ideals must originate. Philosophy which heretofore has been limited to a knowledge of logic, psychology, and ethics now includes the study of the classics —Plato, Aristotle, Bacon, Descartes, Spinoza, Vico, Kant, Hegel. Scientific instruction in Italy has suffered in the past largely because of the scantiness of resources, but it is now realized that scientific knowledge is well-worth having, not only for its direct effects in promoting the material welfare of mankind, but also for its power to strengthen the moral purposes of humanity. The position of foreign languages has been made more stable, not only by giving them increased time in the newer programs, but by devising more practical methods of instruction. Formerly German, French, and English were taught very much as Latin and Greek were and are still approached—through formal grammar and choice literary specimens. The direct method has now quite generally modified this procedure in a practical direction. Speaking and understanding the spoken word are strongly emphasized, and the newspaper and conversation on everyday topics are to some extent utilized as well as the classics.

The Royal Decree of March 15, 1923, No. 684, introduced important changes in physical education. Under the old régime, this subject had been neglected largely through lack of money and teachers. Not only were gymnasiums found in but a few of the schools, but in many cases physical training was given under such unfavorable conditions as to imperil the health of the students. Yet it was impossible to improve these conditions without the expenditure of huge sums. It was, therefore, decided to entrust this subject to the National Organization for Physical Education. Secondary school students are required to take the courses offered by the Organization and cannot be promoted from one class to another unless they have passed the examination in this subject. Students pay an annual fee of 30 lire for this course.

EXAMINATIONS

Admission to all first grade secondary schools is based on an entrance examination. One type of examination admits students

to the gymnasium, the lower course of the technical institute, and the lower course of the normal institute. Another type of examination admits students to the complementary school. A student must be at least ten years of age before being allowed to take either type of examination. Special entrance examinations must be passed for admission to the fourth class of the gymnasium and to all the second grade secondary schools. Before the reform, elementary school pupils were admitted to secondary schools on obtaining the maturity diploma at the end of the fourth grade.

The entrance examinations include the following subjects: Italian, arithmetic and elementary geometry, drawing, and a general oral examination to determine the general preparation of the students in the various subjects. In addition, there is a supplementary examination consisting of a written report on a subject of the oral examination or on some general subject. This test lasts three hours and its object is to determine what type of secondary school the student is best fitted for. Those who fail to pass this examination, but who have passed the others, may register in the complementary school only.

An important result of this system of entrance examinations is the limitation of the number of students in government schools. In fact, the maximum number of students in each institute has been fixed by law. One important effect of this system is that it brings the private institutions into prominence. The Government proposes to instruct only the best among the secondary students and turn over to the private schools the large number of those who are considered unfit to be educated by the State. An official article published in the *Secolo,* August 24, 1923, affirms that the State is obliged to provide elementary instruction for all children, but as to secondary and higher education, the State should provide it only for those who deserve it and not to all who seek it. In this connection, Professor Mondolfo, of the University of Bologna, remarks that one of the objects of the reform is to reduce the number of graduates who lower the intellectual standards of the schools.

FEES

The tuition fee is payable every two months. The tuition fee for each class of the classical lyceum, scientific lyceum, and the

higher course of the technical institute is 75 lire; for each of the three lower classes of the gymnasium and the lower course of the technical institute, 40 lire; for each class of the lower course of the normal institute and complementary school, 25 lire; for each class of the higher course of the normal institute, 37.50 lire; for each class of the lyceum for girls, 50 lire. The tuition fee for the supplementary courses attached to the complementary schools is 100 lire for the first year and 200 lire for the second year. All students are also required to pay 16.50 lire for physical education and ten lire for miscellaneous expenses, e. g., report, secretary's fee, and contribution to the school fund. The following table shows the various fees for each type of secondary institute:

Institute	*Entrance Examination*	*Matriculation*	*Promotion Exam.*	*Tuition Fee*	*Qualifying Exam.*	*Diploma*	*License Exam.*	*Diploma*
Classical or scientific lyceum**	150	60	100	300	250	100	—	—
Gymnasium	—	60	50	160*	—	—	—	—
Technical institute								
Lower course	—	60	50	160	—	—	—	—
Higher course	150	60	100	300	250	100	—	—
Normal institute								
Lower course	—	30	30	100	—	—	—	—
Higher course	50	30	30	150	150	50	—	—
Lyceum for girls	100	50	50	200	—	—	50	20
Complementary school	—	25	25	100	—	—	50	20

INSTRUCTORS

All secondary school instructors are chosen under the direction of the Minister of Public Instruction by competitive examination for each specially indicated vacancy in the order in which their names occur on the graded list. The age limit for competitors is forty-five, unless candidates have previously been appointed as instructors and obtained a pension in other branches of the government service. Only those who hold a university degree are admitted to these examinations, exception being made for teachers of

*Tuition fee for the fourth and fifth years is 200 lire each.
**The fee for the maturity examination is 300 lire.
The entrance examination fee for the first class of a secondary school of first grade is 60 lire.

special subjects, i. e., singing, penmanship, etc., in which case other special qualifications are required. Men and women compete on equal terms. The examining commission which is selected by the Minister of Public Instruction is composed of a majority of university professors and a minority of secondary school instructors in active service. Unless the post in question is accepted by the successful candidate, he or she does not have an opportunity for another post without another examination. Transfers for teachers already in the service can be granted only by the Minister of Public Instruction.

On receiving the appointment the teacher assumes the title of adjunct for three years, after which he becomes a full instructor provided, however, that his work during this probationary period has been satisfactory. The adjunct and full instructors are classified into three categories, as follows:

Category A	*Category B*	*Category C*
Instructors of:	Instructors of:	Instructors of:
Classical lyceum	Literary subjects in lower course of gymnasium	Kindergartens attached to normal institutes
Scientific lyceum*	Lower course of technical institute	Music and singing in normal institute
Higher course of technical institute*	Lower course of normal institute	
Higher course of normal institute*	Complementary school	
Gymnasium*	Drawing in normal and technical institutes, scientific lyceum and lyceum for girls	

The new laws are strict enough concerning the work of instructors who are now required to devote serious attention to the teaching of their subjects. No instructor is allowed to practice any liberal profession if it interferes with his regular work at school. A law provides somewhat significantly that "coaching" is forbidden as a means of occupation to teachers in the case of students of their own school and that special notice must be given of such private tutoring and no more than two students may be taught at the same time.

*Provided for purposely assigned to other categories.

The Italian secondary school instructor has always been poorly paid. Before the War some instructors received as little as 700 lire yearly. In 1914 after certain improvements had been made a full instructor of a gymnasium began with 2,500 lire yearly. In the lyceum the salary was increased 500 lire yearly until a maximum of 7,500 lire was reached. According to the 1923 schedules the salaries of teachers in secondary schools vary from a minimum of 5,100 lire to a maximum of 14,300 lire a year for the highest paid instructors on the roll of honor. In many cases these salaries are eked out by permitting the teachers to hold two or three positions. Substitute or assistant instructors are paid only for the number of hours of actual teaching. For each hour per week of instruction, the yearly salary varies from 200 to 350 lire depending on the subject of instruction. Assistant teachers of kindergartens receive 400 lire monthly.

These figures show that the salaries of Italian secondary school instructors are still inadequately low. The initial salary of a full instructor of Category A is 8,300 lire, and with his regular increases he may hope to get after twenty-five years of service 13,300 lire a year. Under normal conditions of exchange the initial salary is equivalent to $1,660 and the maximum $2,660. The average instructor in the New York City high schools begins with a salary of $1,800 a year and by means of yearly increases of about $150.00 each, he may hope to reach as high as $3,800 a year. The average salary paid in men's and co-educational colleges in the United States in 1919-1920 was $2,106. A study of this subject was made in 1921 by Mr. Trevor Arnett of the General Education Board who shows that "our higher institutions of learning, which are supported by endowment, are seriously menaced through lack of funds to pay adequate salaries to teachers. . . . There is grave danger that large numbers of able men may be driven from academic life and young men and women of ability may be deterred from entering academic careers." The same statement applies to secondary school instructors of Italy who are even more inadequately paid than the American high school teacher or college professor.

ROYAL HIGHER NORMAL INSTITUTES

The Law of June 25, 1882, No. 898, established two higher normal institutes for the training of secondary school instructors and for administrative positions in elementary schools. These schools were located in Rome and Florence. In 1923 they were reorganized and a third was established in Messina for the special convenience of Sicilian teachers. Candidates for admission to these schools are required to pass an entrance examination and must be normal school graduates or have an equivalent education. The entire course extends over four years. The Government grants 33,000 lire a year for the support of each of these institutions.

ACCREDITED AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

One very important feature of the Gentile reform of secondary education has to do with private schools. Previous to 1923 the government exercised almost complete control of secondary instruction. It used to be pratically impossible for students from private secondary schools to receive fair treatment from the examiners in government institutions. As a result of the recent reform, however, students from private schools are submitted to the same examinations as students from government schools and receive impartial treatment. Gentile has in this manner raised the status of private schools. They are now granted a considerable amount of initiative, but the Government still continues to protect the interests of the public by supervising closely the moral and academic qualifications of the teaching staffs, the hygienic conditions of school buildings, and educational authorities retain very great powers of control and inspection.

Accredited secondary schools exist side by side with the government institutes and studies completed in them are recognized by the official authorities. Instructors of subsidized schools are appointed and promoted in the same manner as those in government schools. Principals of accredited schools of secondary grade are also appointed on the basis of competitive examinations.

The Government not only does not wish to monopolize secondary education, but actually encourages the establishment of private schools that meet certain definite requirements. The new regulations prescribe that any Italian citizen above thirty years

of age may open a private school provided he possesses the necessary academic qualifications and satisfies other legal requirements. All private school teachers must possess the same qualifications as the instructors of government institutes. Private schools must always be open to the educational supervisor or to any other person appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction for inspection purposes. Another condition is that physical education must be given in conformance with government regulations. Any person desiring to open a private institute must file a written application with the educational supervisor three months prior to the proposed opening of the school. The application is to be accompanied by the program of studies, names of teachers with degrees held, and plans of the school buildings. The law imposes severe fines for schools opened in violation of this regulation, varying from one thousand to five thousand lire and imprisonment for second offences.

FINANCIAL RELATIONS BETWEEN STATE AND LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS

The financial relations between the State and local organizations for the support of secondary schools have been simplified as a result of the Gentile reform. In this connection it is of interest to note that the regulations existing under the previous régime were very old, some being in force since 1816. It should, therefore, cause no surprise to find the finances of schools in an incredibly chaotic and uncertain condition. According to the old régime secondary schools were supported in one of the following ways:

1.—Schools entirely supported by the State.

2.—Schools supported by the State with the aid of local organizations.

3.—Schools supported by local organizations with the aid of the State.

4.—Schools entirely supported by local organizations.

The rate of the various contributions varied in each individual case. Some organizations were required to pay very nominal sums, others paid a very large share of the total expenses. The royal decrees of May 6, 1923, No. 1054, January 11, 1923, No. 133,

and March 11, 1923, No. 685, attempt to simplify the whole matter of financial support of secondary schools. In the case of technical institutes and scientific lyceums, the provinces are required to furnish the school buildings and must keep them in good condition; for all other secondary schools, the municipalities provide the school buildings. Both provinces and municipalities are also responsible for the equipment, lighting, and heating of the buildings and all office expenditures, and in the case of the technical institutes and scientific lyceums for the educational and scientific equipment, which in the case of all other secondary institutes is provided for by the State. In general, the expenses for the personnel of the offices of the secretaries of the lyceums, gymnasiums, and normal institutes are defrayed by the State; in the case of the complementary schools and lyceums for girls, by the municipalities; and for the scientific lyceums and technical institutes by the provinces. The mechanics and assistants connected with technical institutes and scientific lyceums are paid by the respective provinces, except those of the technical institutes of Basilicata and Sardinia who are paid by the State. The mechanics of lyceums and gymnasiums are paid by the State, except those in Sicily who are paid by the municipalities. Some idea of the extent of this support from local sources for the lyceums and gymnasiums may be obtained from the fact that cities with a population under 30,000 which are provincial capitals must contribute 60,000 lire a year for each school; those with over 30,000 inhabitants, 80,000 lire a year for each school; and those with over 100,000 inhabitants, 100,000 lire yearly.

There is an obvious inference to be drawn from the Royal Decree of September 27, 1923, which requires every secondary institute in Italy to be supplied with certain basic essentials in the matter of equipment. This law stipulates that each institute must have a teachers' library, a students' library, maps, works of art, and in the case of lyceums, laboratories of physics, chemistry, and natural sciences.

In common with all other educational institutions in Italy, the secondary schools are not, in many cases, well-housed. The use of convents and other old buildings poorly adapted to educational needs is quite common.

Both elementary and secondary education should be conceived from the standpoint of the student as a human being and a future citizen of Italy, not as future doctor, artist, or engineer. As far as possible into adolescence, all children are entitled to the untrameled development of their capacities, in order that, to the extent of their ability and irrespective of social and economic accident, they may participate in the enjoyment of the cultural heritage of humanity. This is best for them as human beings; in the long run it is also best for them as breadwinners. Higher education must be broad in purpose, easily accessible, and if it is to be really efficient, obtainable on the basis of ability and earnestness.

The Italian secondary school programs do not countenance mere sense-training but emphasize inductive thinking. The programs contain Italian and Latin literatures, Greek, philosophy, history, music, and art as well as mathematics, the sciences and games. It may be said that the Italian secondary school student receives a thorough general preparation with the exception of the natural sciences where his knowledge is purely theoretical, since there is no equipment in the schools for individual work in physics, chemistry, or biology. This deficiency in scientific preparation is also shown in the examinations. For example, in the scientific lyceum the examination in physics lasts thirty minutes and is oral. In chemistry, natural sciences and geography the examination consists of a fifteen minutes' test. These tests, of course, contrast rather sharply with the examination in mathematics which last five hours and the Latin examination which is given in two sections and allowed to last ten hours for the written work, and twenty-five minutes for the oral test. The written test in foreign languages lasts five hours, and the oral thirty minutes. In conclusion it may be said that the Italian secondary school curriculums have not only been generally enriched, but the student actually leads a normal and wholesome life—his interests awakened, his enthusiasm kindled, his powers of intellectual application challenged and disciplined.

SECONDARY SCHOOL STATISTICS

An important question solved by the Royal Decree of May 6, 1923, No. 1054, concerns the number and distribution of secondary

schools. Experience had shown that the distribution of schools in the various regions when left to the mercy of private initiative or parliamentary vicissitudes did not meet local requirements. The location of schools was not based on any scientific data, such as, population, area, and the cultural needs of the different regions. In some regions there was an abundance of schools, in others there were none at all. Some provinces had as many as eight lyceums, some did not have any; others were without a technical institute. The province of Rome, for example, had five normal schools, whereas five other provinces did not have a single institution for the preparation of teachers. A few provinces did not have any technical school, others had as many as fourteen. The Decree of May 6, 1923, provides that no new secondary institute may be opened except by special law. This provision does not affect the complementary schools, the number of which is unlimited.

The enrolment in all types of secondary schools has been steadily increasing as shown in the following table:

1900-01	*Gymnasiums*	*Lyceums*	*Technical Schools*	*Technical Institutes*	*Complementary Schools*	*Normal Institutes*
TOTAL	32,464	13,051	38,384	9,590	10,266	9,473
Male	31,181	12,747	34,309	9,375	———	1,266
Female ..	1,283	304	4,045	215	10,266	8,207
1910-11						
TOTAL	38,053	14,342	82,406	20,952	19,366	17,953
Male	33,604	13,551	62,776	19,379	———	3,323
Female ...	4,449	791	19,630	1,573	19,366	14,630
1920-21						
TOTAL	57,222	16,644	133,612	35,009	27,460	36,562
Male	39,931	13,722	84,578	27,584	226	2,866
Female ...	17,361	2,922	49,034	7,425	27,234	33,696
Per 10,000 population	15.37	4.46	35.84	9.40	7.31	9.81

In proportion to the population by far the largest number of students are registered in the technical schools—35.84 per 10,000 inhabitants. Less than half of this number are enrolled in the gymnasiums, 15.37 per 10,000 inhabitants, and only 4.46 in the lyceums which, as we have seen, follow the gymnasiums.

It is encouraging to note that there is a decided tendency on the part of female students to attend the various types of secondary

schools. The following table shows the proportion of male and female students in secondary schools in 1900 and 1920:

School	*Number of females per 100 males* 1900-01	1920-21
Gymnasiums	4.1	43.5
Lyceums	2.5	21.3
Technical schools	11.8	59.2
Technical institutes	2.3	26.9

During these same years the proportion of females to males in normal schools was in 1900-01, seven to one, and in 1920-21, sixteen to one.

UNIVERSITY AND HIGHER EDUCATION

History and Organization of Italian Universities

The universities of Italy represent great academic origins — no less than nine were established before the American Revolutionary War, and many go back to the Renaissance and earlier. Their history embodies educational foundations laid by municipalities and also represents civic support given by citizens. These very same universities have now passed to second rank largely because of the absence of educational liberty. This is most evident in the organization of studies. The laws, regulations, and circulars uniformly fixing for all universities the compulsory subjects, examinations, hours, and in fact everything that could and could not be done, have brought about what is called the bureaucratization of education. The university had come to mean nothing more than the place where the professors went to impart the instruction for which they were being paid, and the students to attend such classes as they must in order to pass the examinations for obtaining one of the higher degrees which used to entitle them to practice the corresponding professions.

Another and perhaps more important reason why Italian universities have lost their former prestige is to be found in the excessive number of institutions of higher learning. The actual number of universities in Italy as in some other European nations far exceeds the needs of the country. There are in all twenty-four universities in Italy with a total attendance, including certain affiliated higher institutes, of about 50,000 students, or 1.3 per

thousand population as compared with the proportion of five per thousand inhabitants in the United States. Considering the comparative areas of the United States and Italy, it will be seen at once that from a geographical point of view Italy has more universities than are required. The excess is principally in northern Italy and in the islands of Sicily and Sardinia. Within a radius of eighty miles from Bologna there are seven universities: Siena, Florence, Pisa Padua, Parma, Modena, and Ferrara. Each has a long history of its own, which together with a strong sectional spirit makes it extremely difficult even to consider publicly a greater centralization to be accomplished by a reduction in the number of universities. It must be remembered, however, that within the states of Pennsylvania and New York alone there are seventeen medical schools in contrast to the twenty-one medical faculties in Italy. Before the unification of Italy, when the country was still divided into small kingdoms and principalities, the existence of a university for each state was justified, especially for political reasons. At the present time, these political and social reasons have disappeared, and modern facilities of communication have eliminated the necessity for local universities. Besides, the Nationalist maintains that the mixing of the various elements of the population improves the national unity of the country. The concentration of scientific centers would not only strengthen the financial resources of the surviving universities, but would eventually attract more attention from the outer world, and place these great centers of study in contact with the scientific students of foreign countries and thus promote international intellectual relations.

THE UNIVERSITY REFORMS

After completing the reform of elementary and secondary education Minister Gentile undertook to reform higher education, and thus for the first time since the law of 1859, the entire educational system was reorganized. The Decree of September 30, 1923, No. 2102, on the university reform constitutes a milestone in the history of higher education in Italy. According to this law, the object of higher education is to promote the progress of science and to impart the scientific culture necessary for the exercise of the various professions. The subjects of study are coordinated so as to constitute faculties and schools. The faculties

are: law, letters and philosophy, medicine and surgery, mathematical, physical and natural sciences. The course is of four years in the case of law, letters and philosophy, and the sciences, of six years in the case of medicine. The schools are: pharmacy, engineering and architecture. The full course in the engineering school is of five years, and leads to the degrees of engineer or of architect. In pharmacy the course is four years. Special faculties and graduate schools may also be organized.

The chief effect of the reform is that the State undertakes to support only such schools, libraries, and clinics as are deemed necessary for the State. Others are not suppressed but allowed to shift for themselves. It was with the intent to reduce he number of exising universities that the Government in 1923, attempted to classify these institutions into the following categories. Universities of Category *A*, which are wholly supported by the Italian Government, except for a few private grants or small subsidies for specific purposes established by private persons in connection with these universities. The tendency is for local governments to be relatively much less sympathetic to the needs of universities of this category whose financial status is guaranteed by the Central Government. There are ten universities of Category *A*, located at: Bologna, Cagliari, Genoa, Naples, Padua, Palermo, Pavia, Pisa, Rome and Turin.

Similarly, the State entirely supports six Class *A* engineering schools at Bologna, Naples, Padua, Palermo, Pisa, and Rome; one Royal Higher School of Architecture at Rome, and three royal higher normal schools at Rome, Florence, and Messina.

The second class consists of universities of Category *B*, or subsidized, which are in part supported by the Central Government and in part by either provincial or municipal contributions. There are eleven of these institutions and among them several of the universities which the government educational authorities regard as of doubtful value. These universities are located in Parma, Perugia, Catania, Messina, Siena, Sassari, Modena, Macerata, Bari, Florence, and Milan. The position of the Central Government with respect to these universities is that they may be maintained, and others may be opened only if the municipalities or provinces or both are willing to bear the bulk of the expenses, assited by a small government contribution.

In addition there are the so-called "free universities," three in number, which are entirely supported from provincial, municipal, or private sources. These universities are located in Ferrara, Camerino, and Urbino.

In respect to number of students, prestige, equipment and standards of work, there are wide variations within each of these groups. In general, the universities of Category *A*, are far superior to those of Category *B*. However, some of the universities in Category *B*, such as Milan and Florence, are already quite superior in equipment and quality of work to some of the universities of Category *A*, and are likely, in the future, to acquire even greater advantages.

FINANCES

In university and higher education the Italian Government is spending about eighteen million lire a year. A large share of this amount goes to salaries of professors as state employees. The balance is spent in lump sum grants to the various universities for maintenance. The budgets of the various faculties are determined by the university authorities, the Government being thus free from direct responsibility for the final allotment of the moneys. The universities of Category *A* receive from two to six million lire for maintenance. The Royal Decree of September, 1923, provided that the Central Government should make the following contributions to the universities and higher institutions of Category *B*:

Location	*Royal University or Institute*	*Annual State Contribution Lire*
Bari	Royal University	1,285,000
Bologna	Royal School of Industrial Chemistry	78,100
Catania	Royal University	1,520,000
Florence	Royal University	2,400,000
Genoa	Royal Naval Engineering School	150,000
Macerata	Royal University	150,000
Messina	Royal University	1,020,000
Milan	Royal University	300,000
Milan	Royal Engineering School	400,000
Modena	Royal University	1,000,000
Parma	Royal University	1,000,000
Sassari	Royal University	900,000
Siena	Royal University	1,000,000
Turin	Royal Engineering School	1,350,000

POINTS OF UNIFORMITY BETWEEN THE VARIOUS UNIVERSITIES

As government institutions all universities have certain features in common. In spite of their division into categories A, B, and "free," universities, before the law all these schools and their degrees have the same standing. The universities are all under state control exercised through a department of the Ministry of Public Instruction known as the General Department of Higher Education. The law of September 1923, lists the following authorities in the government of the universities: rector, academic senate, administrative council, deans of faculties and directors of schools, faculty and school councils. The higher institutes are governed by the following authorities: director, administrative council, school council.

The rector, under the old régime, was one of the professors chosen by the Crown from a list of three candidates proposed by an assembly of professors. At the present time this officer is nominated by the Crown through the Ministry of Public Instruction from among the full professors of the respective universities or institutes. The rector holds office for three years and may be reappointed. He is the responsible administrative officer who confers degrees in the name of the King, presides over meetings of the academic council, and the assembly of professors, maintains general university discipline and makes an annual report to the Minister. The rectorship frequently rotates from one faculty to another. The office of rector of an Italian university is analogous to that of the American college president, but the rector has distinctly less authority and influence than the college president. An important difference lies in the fact that the rector is constantly changing, and the American college president is permanent.

The deans of faculties and directors of university schools are nominated by the Minister from among the permanent professors of the respective faculties or schools on the recommendation of the rector. They serve for three years and may be reappointed.

The academic senate, according to the new law, is composed of the rector, who is the presiding officer, the out-going rector, and the deans of faculties and directors of the component schools. It corresponds to the former academic council. The duties of the academic senate are largely advisory but it has some definite

powers such as the approving of the credentials of foreign students and has always had the determination of the general educational policy and the arrangement of the program of studies. With the increased freedom in the arrangement of the curriculum, the influence of the academic senate is somewhat larger.

The administrative council consists of the rector or director who is the presiding officer, two members elected by the general assembly of professors chosen from among the regular professors of the faculty, and two representatives from the Government. If any person or organization supports the university to an extent of not less than one-tenth of the contribution of the Central Government, he may be represented in this council. The members of the administrative council elected by the assembly of professors and the members chosen by the Minister hold office for three years and may be re-appointed. The administrative council administers the property of the university, prepares the fiscal reports for the current year and the budget for the coming year. The president and members of the administrative council are personally responsible for expenditures made in excess of the available funds and for any financial crisis resulting from violations of laws and regulations.

The faculty or school council consists of the dean or director, and of the full professors of the faculty or school. Special meetings of the faculty may be attended by the adjunct professors and free docents. The faculty council is entrusted with formulating the programs of the courses to be given in the following year. These programs must be submitted to the academic senate for approval.

TEACHING STAFF

The teaching staff of the universities is divided into the following categories: full professor, adjunct professor, and substitute professor. There are also "emeritus" professors, but at the present time the Gentile reform is attempting to suppress the further continuation of this group of professors. Below the substitute professors come the "aggregati" (*agregés*) who are found in a few Italian universities. They may substitute for professors and are paid for the actual work performed. The next large group

is that of the "aiuti" or first assistants, and then the still larger group of "assistenti", or second assistants. In the latter two classes, the Gentile reform has attempted to effect a considerable modification. Previously, both first and second assistants had a definite position as government employees which enabled them to move from one faculty to another, retaining their positions and the rights of seniority and pay accumulated from the beginning of their assistantships. The Gentile reform does not recognize the assistant class as state employees, requires their selection to be entirely local, and discourages their moving from one institution to another. This regulation, however, does not affect all those who held positions of assistants previous to the passage of the reform.

Professors are appointed by means of a system known as the "concorso." When a vacancy occurs in a faculty the candidates who wish to compete for the position submit to the faculty documents including their publications and other qualifications. The Minister of Public Instruction appoints a commission of three professors recommended by the faculty to examine the applicants. The faculty selects a trio of names from among these candidates and submits it to the Ministry of Public Instruction, which, with the advice of the Superior Council, decides who shall receive the post. In certain cases the Ministry may request reconsideration by the faculty and the proposal of a new trio of names. This is the method employed in the smaller and less influential faculties. The more desirable positions in the larger faculties are usually filled by calling a person who is already a professor in one of the smaller institutions.

Previous to the Gentile reform the "concorso" was held in a different manner. It was then possible for candidates, not necessarily selected or approved by the faculty, to enter the competitive examination for a vacant post and the appointment was made by a committee nominated by the Ministry of Public Instruction. The present system has been criticized in that it is impossible for a young man of ability to secure a position in a faculty unless the faculty chooses to consider him. Before the War, rise in academic rank was slow and arduous, but during the War all competitive examinations for university posts were discontinued and now there

are so many vacancies that advancement is much more rapid. In fact it is so rapid that the professoriate is in danger of being recruited from inadequately prepared young men. The Minister of Public Instruction in a speech delivered in the Senate admitted that great difficulties had been found in the preparation of candidates for these competitive examinations.

In this connection it is important to note that the retirement age for professors is seventy-five years. This system has been objected to not only because men have held posts far beyond the time of their maximum usefulness, but it has delayed younger men in securing appointment as professors. It has frequently happened that a first assistant has had to wait as long as twenty years before being able to secure a position of professor.

According to the Gentile reform the salaries of professors in universities of categories *A* and *B* are paid by the Government. The following table gives the present salaries of adjunct and full professors:

	Salary lire	*Additional gratuity lire*
Adjunct professor	12,000	4,000
Full professor—initial salary	14,000	6,000
Full professor—after 5 years service	15,000	6,000
Full professor—after 10 years service	17,000	6,000
Full professor—after 15 years service	18,500	6,000

Professors are permitted to retire on pension after thirty-five years of uninterrupted service or when they have reached the age of sixty provided that they have served for at least twenty-five years. They are obliged to retire at the age of seventy-five. The new regulations provide that professors who for any reason are unable to carry out their work efficiently may be retired at an earlier age. The pension is based on the salary of the three years preceding retirement. Professors who have served thirty-five years receive 100 per cent of the salary; for those who have served less, the pension is calculated at one thirty-fifth times the number of years served. However, in order to enjoy the pension rights a professor must turn back three per cent of his annual salary when it is 3,000 lire or less; five per cent for a salary up to and including 6,000 lire, and six per cent for a salary over 6,000 lire.

Government supervision of the teaching staff of Italian secondary schools and universities is provided for by a decree, published in the *Gazzetta Ufficiale* of January 21, 1927, empowering the Cabinet to dismiss any professor for political manifestations not in harmony with the general policy of the Government. This decree states that "professors in royal universities and instructors in secondary institutes, and other professors of similar rank are to be dismissed from service when for manifestations in connection with their office, or even outside their office, they do not give full assurance of faithful fulfillment of their duties, or if they place themselves in a condition of incompatibility with the general political aims of the Government.

All professors and instructors are, furthermore, by the same decree, required to take the following oath on assuming office: "I swear to be faithful to the King and the royal successors, loyally to observe the Constitution and other laws of the Kingdom, to exercise my office of teaching and all my academic duties with the object of forming hard-working, upright citizens devoted to their country. To that end I swear that I do not and will not belong to any association or political party whose activities are irreconciliable with the duties of my office."

Another decree also published on January 21, 1927, provides that schools, colleges and universities may be abolished by the Italian Government if their teachings show disrespect of the institutions and principles of the present régime. One measure empowers the Government to dismiss administrative magistrates whose official or personal activities or opinions are incompatible with the general political tendency of the state authorities. Another measure provides that persons not possessing "the moral and political prerequisites" shall not be admitted to competitive examinations for posts as teachers or professors.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

To enter a university from a secondary institute, students are required to pass an entrance examination. Students from the classical lyceum may register in any faculty or school. Students from the scientific lyceum, on the other hand, may matriculate only in the faculties of medicine and surgery, and mathematical, physical

and natural sciences, and in the schools of pharmacy, engineering and architecture. Generally speaking the Italian youth begins his university work at the age of eighteen.

The fees for royal universities and higher institutes, according to the 1923 law, are as follows:

Faculty or School	*Matriculation*	*Tuition Fee*	*Degree or Diploma*	*Special Tuition Tax*	*Special Tax for annual Examination*	*Extra Charge for Graduation Examination*
Law	300	700	300	100	50	75
Letters & Philosophy..	300	350	300	100	50	75
Medicine & Surgery...	300	750	300	100	50	75
Mathematics, Physics & Natural Sciences...	300	350	300	100	50	75
Engineering	300	800	300	100	50	75
Architecture	300	800	300	100	50	75
Pharmacy	300	600	300	100	50	75
Chemistry & Pharmacy	300	500	300	100	50	75

COURSES OF STUDY

The subjects of study offered by the various faculties are not uniform. Certain subjects are prescribed for each faculty. They are not necessarily to be taken by every student, but they must always be offered. Other courses, especially in the Faculty of Letters and Philosophy, are offered, and vary in number and character, according to the size and resources of the university. The only degree (*laurea*) awarded by the universities is that of "Dottore." Attendance at lectures is optional, and there is no control of the daily class work, the sole conditions for qualifying for degrees being registration and passing the examination in the programs of each course and the final general examination, at which the dissertation is presented, publicly discussed and orally defended.

Requirements for degrees have hitherto included the following:

In the Faculty of Law, eighteen obligatory courses.

In the Faculty of Letters and Philosophy candidates for degrees are required to take twelve courses. The following are compulsory for the degree in Letters: Italian, Latin and Greek literatures, history of philosophy or theoretic philosophy; and the following are prescribed for the degree in philosophy: theoretic philosophy, pedagogy, moral philosophy, history of philosophy,

experimental psychology, the Italian and Latin literatures, either Greek or some modern literature or ancient or modern history.

In the Faculty of Physical, Mathematical and Natural Sciences the doctorate may be taken in Mathematics or Physics or Chemistry or Natural Sciences. A scheme has been prepared for mixed degrees in Physical Science and Mathematics, and in Physical Science and Natural Sciences intended for teachers who are required to instruct in a group of scientific subjects.

In medicine the instruction is of an eminently practical character. Medical students are required to pass examinations in twenty subjects. A School of Odontology has been established at the University of Rome, and there is in connection with each medical faculty a school of pharmacy which confers after a four years' course a diploma, and after a five years' course the degree of Doctor of Chemistry and Pharmacy.

For the degree of Engineering or Architecture the first two years devoted chiefly to mathematics, chemistry, elementary architecture, and ornamental design, may be taken in any university, and the three subsequent years in the Polytechnic at Turin, the Higher Technical Institute at Milan, the Engineering School at Padua, or the Naval School at Genoa. Post-graduate courses leading to a special diploma are provided in Turin and Milan.

The Veterinary School course covers four years and leads to the degree of *Dottore in Zooratria.*

The Government has exercised control of the courses and general types of instruction in the various faculties. The Gentile reform, however, attempts to modify somewhat the type of state control and to allow individual faculties a larger amount of autonomy in the choice of teaching methods and courses offered. With reference to university instruction the Gentile reform is claimed to allow greater freedom of teaching and a larger degree of academic autonomy, in the sense that the curricula are beginning to show considerable differences from one university to another in contrast to the previous uniformity, in at least the compulsory courses. In the matter of administrative autonomy, however, the Government has been severely criticized by the university professors throughout Italy because the choice of the rectors and deans has been more highly centralized in the hands of the Ministry of

Public Instruction than ever before. The Government has defended this provision as being a necessary temporary measure.

Instruction in the Italian universities is characterized by the following features: First, the importance and prominence of the didactic lecture delivered by the full professor in contrast to the amount of individual instruction given by his assistants. Second, failure to provide for individual experiment by the students in the laboratory and experimental sciences. Third, the existence of the system of free docents which tends to develop an extra-mural school not under the control of the regular professors. Fourth, the indifference to students of average ability on the part of professors and assistants, although the system of the *interni* or special students affords unusual opportunities to a small number of superior men who are well taken care of.

ACADEMIC DEGREES AND LICENSURE

Universities and higher institutes award all degrees and diplomas in the name of the King. The degrees and diplomas conferred by universities and institutes have merely academic significance and do not allow as formerly the practice of the respective professions. State licensure examinations are now established, and students are required to pass these examinations before receiving permission to practice the various professions. Only those who have secured the corresponding degree or diploma from the faculties or schools are admitted to these examinations. Members of the state licensure examination commissions are appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction.

STATISTICS ON UNIVERSITIES AND HIGHER INSTITUTES

There has been a steady increase in the number of students enrolled in the Italian universities. This increase is especially noticeable in universities located in large cities. In some cases the number of students has increased to an alarming degree. Quantity does not assure quality. In fact, it is well-known that students generally went to the universities not to participate in the communion of knowledge, but either to secure at all costs a certificate of attendance, or else to prepare for one of the numerous examinations. The aim of the great majority was to cram into

their minds enough information to pass the examinations. In twenty-seven years the registration has increased more than 100 per cent. The following table shows the enrolment in the universities from 1894-1922*:

Academic Year	*Total Students*	*Academic Year*	*Total Students*
1894-95	20,903	1916-17	30,167
1900-01	24,524	1917-18	34,667
1905-06	23,772	1918-19	39,958
1910-11	24,324	1919-20	45,121
1915-16	27,009	1920-21	43,865
		1921-22	40,881

The above statistics do not include students at the nine higher institutes for commercial education (Turin, Genoa, Milan, Venice, Trieste, Rome, Bari, Catania, and Naples), with 5,453 students in 1922-23; three higher schools of agriculture (Milan, Perugia, and Portici) with 511 students; five engineering colleges (Turin, Milan, Bologna, Rome, Naples) with 5,060 students; the higher naval colleges at Genoa and Naples with 495 students; the high school of forestry in Florence, with 24 students; the school of social science in Florence, with 224 students; the school for oriental languages in Naples, with 231 students; three veterinary colleges (Turin, Milan, and Naples) with 357 students; three women's training colleges (Florence, Rome and Naples), with 749 students.

The increase in university registration, however, is not uniform. In some the enrolment has increased by leaps and bounds, while in others the total number of students has either remained stationary or shown a decrease. For example, the universities of Naples, Rome, Palermo, Turin, and Genoa show a decided increase in the enrolment, whereas the "free" universities and the Royal University of Macerata show a decrease. The following table shows the date of the foundation, and the total number of students in each university for certain recent years:**

*Does not include students in schools of agriculture, obstetrics, and in the courses for normal school gradutes.

**Some of the figures do not check up because taken from different sources and because not all students are always included.

		STUDENTS				
State Universities	*Foundation*	1913-14	1916-17	1919-20	1921-22	1923-24
Bologna	1200	1,509	2,646	3,550	2,322	2,103
Cagliari	1626	250	310	333	408	407
Catania	1434	1,006	1,449	2,352	1,526	1,079
Florence*	1924	——	——	——	——	814
Genoa	1243	1,094	964	1,854	1,340	1,515
Macerata	1290	370	359	147	117	——
Messina	1549	208	——	1,060	813	——
Modena	1678	428	539	811	748	728
Naples	1224	4,359	6,346	9,965	6,212	5,617
Padua	1222	1,526	2,974	2,426	2,163	2,216
Palermo	1805	1,501	2,149	3,327	3,459	2,702
Parma	1502	357	469	601	521	——
Pavia	1300	1,109	1,370	1,912	1,673	1,977
Perugia	1276	197	248	365	312	——
Pisa	1338	822	1,245	1,853	1,631	1,269
Rome	1303	3,044	4,125	6,120	5,100	4,583
Sassari	1607	152	184	257	267	——
Siena	1300	287	308	413	426	447
Turin	1404	1,831	2,481	2,753	2,191	2,249
Free Universities						
Camerino	1727	382	451	242	206	——
Ferrara	1391	506	462	449	288	——
Urbino	1564	270	205	175	160	——
University Courses:						
Lyceums of Aquila, Bari, Catanzaro..	——	59	189	211	148	——
TOTAL	——	21,267	29,473	41,176	32,031	——

All university faculties and schools show an increase in the registration, except the faculty of law. The reason for this is said to be the difficulty of earning an adequate livelihood experienced by the members of the legal profession. Assuming that the number of students in 1913-14 was one hundred, the registration in 1920-21 and 1921-22 increased as follows:

Faculty and School	*1920-21*	*1921-22*
Law	103	92
Medicine and Surgery	204	189
Physical, Natural, and Mathematical Sciences	216	205
Letters and Philosophy	172	161
Pharmacy	229	244
Veterinary Medicine	365	297
TOTAL	172	160

* Not a university until 1924-1925. Figures given apply to the Institute of Higher Studies (Reale Istituto di Studi Superiori Pratici e di Perfezionamento) which was founded in 1860 with four "sections," equivalent to the faculties of a university.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS TO STUDY IN ITALY

In Great Britain, France, and Italy modifications of the requirements for degrees have either been made or are contemplated, largely in order to make residence in their universities more attractive to foreign students. Movements are on foot in practically all these countries to establish fellowships for the exchange of students. The Italian Government is especially desirous of attracting foreign students. In the Royal Decree of March 1, 1923, No. 563, the sum of 200,000 lire was appropriated for scholarships to "Italians and foreigners to enable them to take courses or complete studies at universities, higher institutes, and fine arts schools abroad or at home." This means that foreign students in Italy are exempted from fees and special taxes, and are even eligible for maintenance grants from a fund of 200,000 lire annually from which grants are also made to Italians studying abroad.

An official report indicates that there was a decrease in the number of foreign students in Italy during the War. In recent years the number has beeen increasing and is fast approaching the pre-War figures. From a total of 414 foreign students in 1913-14 in Italian universities and higher institutes, the number decreased to 191 in 1918-19, but increased again to 370 in 1920-21. Since 1923 the number has greatly increased. The University of Padua alone had sixty foreign students in 1922-23, and 154 in 1923-24.

Foreigners who have completed the entrance requirements of an approved university in their own country may enter the Italian universities, and those who have already completed one or more years of study in their own universities may be given advance standing, even to the extent of being allowed, if their studies have already included courses equivalent to those prescribed for an Italian degree, to present themselves forthwith for the final examination without taking any further courses. Except in very exceptional cases, however, a candidate who has not completed at least a year's work in the Italian universities is not likely to succeed in passing the examination.

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL CENTERS

There is an American Italian Institute in Rome under the leadership of Nelson P. Gay. Its object is to act as intermediary

between America and Italy as a means of information. The American University Union which has already established such headquarters in certain European capitals, has also organiged a center for American students in Rome in the historic Salviati Palace in the very heart of the city, which also houses the American library. The Institute and the American Library co-operate in the most helpful manner with the American Academy housed in a beautiful group of buildings on the other side of the Tiber.

The American Academy in Rome awards fellowships to citizens of the United States who have certain qualifications. The amount of these fellowships which are awarded after competition varies from $1,000 to $1,350. These fellowships are awared for a variety of subjects: architecture, landscape, mural painting, painting, sculpture, classical studies, and musical composition.

The Italy America Society with headquarters in New York City also awards the Eleonora Duse Fellowship to students of either sex, born in the United States or in Canada, who have definite plans for research work in an Italian university. The amount of the fellowship is $1,200 for one year.

The Italian authorities have also organized an institution in Rome with the name of Italian Interuniversity Institute to promote closer relations between the universities of Italy and other countries. The Institute is organizing fellowships for foreigners wishing to do research work in Italy.

Plans are also under way by several travel bureaus, for residential study and travel tours in Italy during the summer of 1927. These tours are to be under the personal direction of university professors and upon completion of the tour the student may receive academic credit for his work. These tours are arranged so as to meet the needs of students interested in a wide range of subjects, e. g., classical Italy, art appreciation, commerce, Roman history, etc., etc.

ROYAL ITALIAN UNIVERSITY FOR FOREIGNERS IN PERUGIA

The Royal Italian University for Foreigners was created by the Italian Government by the Decree of October 29, 1925, No. 1965, with the object of spreading a more accurate and thorough knowledge of Italy in all its past and present aspects. It is located in the

city of Perugia in the buildings of the Royal University of Perugia and is opened during the period of from July to October of each year for all foreigners.

The city of Perugia which has about 75,000 inhabitants is the capital of the province of Perugia, situated on picturesque hills between the Tiber and Lago Trasimeno, at an altitude of over 1600 feet above the sea, 103 miles by rail southeast of Florence. Its situation is beautiful, offering delightful views of the Umbrian and Foligno valleys and of the Tiber and the Apennines. The town is enclosed by walls, and its mediæval appearance is attractive and interesting.

Perugia is of special interest to foreigners because it has many striking edifices from its glorious days at the beginning of the Renaissance period, and numerous art treasures. There are also an art-history collection and a botanical garden, and the valuable university collection of Etruscan, Roman, and mediæval antiquities. Three miles southeast of the city lies the Etruscan necropolis of Perugia, discovered in 1840, with remarkable tombs including the sepulchre of the Volumnii. The Gothic Cathedral of San Lorenzo is of the Renaissance period. The Basilica di San Pietro de' Cassinensi in the vicinity was founded about the year 1000 on the site of a sixth-century building; it contains noteworthy pictures by Perugino, Caravaggio, and others and has rich choir stalls (1535) in walnut. The notable old secular edifices of Perugia include the fine *Cambio* (the old exchange), with its celebrated mural paintings of the Chief Virtues of Perugino, his finest fresco, and other artistic features, all in the best Renaissance.

The Royal University for Foreigners offers graduate courses on the following subjects: Italian institutions, Italian literature, history of art (painting, sculpture, architecture, music, applied arts), Italian and Etruscan antiquities, the geography of Italy (geology, ethnography, chorography, fauna, flora, landscape), history of Italy, Italian thought through the centuries (religion, law, science, æsthetics, history of philosophy). These courses are given by Italian university professors and by other eminent authorities in the political, scientific, artistic, and literary world.

In addition to these graduate courses, during the same period,

from July to October of each year, secondary school instructors give courses in the Italian language and literature for foreigners of all nationalities. A qualifying diploma to teach the Italian language in foreign countries is awarded to those who pass the final written and oral examinations.

The Executive Council of the University is composed of Mr. Astore Lupatelli, and of representatives of the Ministry of Public Instruction, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the province and municipality of Perugia, and the Chamber of Commerce of Umbria. The Ministry of Public Instruction contributes 100,000 lire annually toward the support of the institution.

Foreigners are admitted to the University without having to present academic qualifications and receive special privileges during the session, including reductions in room and board, railroad fares, passport visé, and free admission to the art galleries and museums of Italy.

In the summer of 1926 the session extended from July 25 to October 24. Several hundred students from France, the United States, England, Germany, and Rumania attended classes during this period. The inaugural address on "Romanism and Fascism" was delivered by Pietro Fedele, Minister of Public Instruction. Benito Mussolini, Premier of Italy, on a later occasion delivered an address on "Ancient Rome on the Sea." The complete program of the courses offered during the 1926 session was as follows:

GRADUATE COURSES

Italian universities in the Middle Ages with special reference to the Royal University of Perugia. Pietro Fedele, Professor of Modern History in the Royal University of Rome and Minister of Public Instruction.

The social life of Umbria in the Renaissance. Romeo Gallenga.

The three great Italian poets of the xix century: Manzoni, Leopardi, Carducci. Vittorio Rossi, Professor of Italian literature in the Royal University of Rome.

Ancient Greek poetry in modern Italian sensibility. Ettore Romagnoli, Professor of Greek Literature in the Royal University of Pavia.

Woman and love in the work of Dante. Piero Misciatelli.

Readings from Dante. Pietro Fedele, Luigi Pietrobono and Luigi Valli.

Italian religious genius. Giovanni Papini.

The Fioretti of Saint Francis. Luigi Pietrobono, President of the Nazzareno College of Rome.

Italian antiquities with special reference to the Etruscan religion and language. Bartolomeo Nogara, General Director of the Vatican Museums.

Renaissance of Arts in the xv century. Illustrated. I. Benvenuto Supino, Professor of History of Art in the Royal University of Bologna.

Recent Italian educational theories. Giovanni Gentile, Senator of the Kingdom and Professor of Philosophy in the Royal University of Rome.

Problems of modern public law. Santi Romano, Professor of Constitutional and International Law in the Royal University of Milan.

The British Empire and the Roman Empire. Giovanni Pacchioni, Professor of Civil and Roman Law in the Royal University of Milan.

The great Italian economists of the xviii and xix centuries and their influence on contemporary thought. Gino Arias, Professor of Political Economy in the Royal University of Florence.

Recent experimental researches on will and their application to the education of the will. Agostino Gemelli, President of the Catholic University of Milan.

Physiological factors in human personality. Carlo Foà, Professor of Physiology in the Royal University of Milan.

The geography of Italy. Carlo Errera, Professor of Geography in the Royal University of Bologna.

The foreign policy of Italy since 1870. Amedeo Giannini, Minister Plenipotentiary of the Kingdom of Italy and Professor of History of Treaties in the Royal University of Rome.

Lectures. Innocenzo Cappa, Deputy in the Italian Parliament.

The liturgical musical drama from the Middle Ages to the end of the Renaissance and its forms in Umbria, Tuscany and Rome. Fernando Liuzzi. Illustrated and accompanied by

concerts directed by Mgr. Raffaele Casimiri and performed by sixty professors of the Polyphonic Society of Rome.

COURSES IN THE ITALIAN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

The courses in the Italian language and literature which are organized exclusively for foreigners are divided into two classes:

1.—*A lower course* which aims to give students a rapid but thorough knowledge of the Italian language and serves to prepare students for the literary subjects in the higher course. This course may also be taken by foreigners who for any reason desire to learn the Italian language and to be able to write and speak it correctly.

2.—*A higher course* which aims to give a more complete and thorough knowledge of the language and literature of Italy to foreigners who have already begun the study of this language or who are teaching it in foreign countries.

The subjects in the lower course include the following:

1.—Elementary grammar. Study of the vocabulary, reading, translation and miscellaneous exercises. Five lessons per week.

2.—General history of Italian literature with special reference to the principal writers of the various periods. Reading of and comments on simple texts especially of the modern period. Three lessons per week.

3.—Latin language. Two lessons per week.

4.—Conversation. Two lessons per week.

A special preparatory course is offered for the benefit of those students who have no knowledge of the language. Students are divided into three different groups in accordance with their mother language, that is, French, English and German. In the higher course students are similarly divided. When necessary other groups are organized.

The subjects in the higher course include the following:

1.—Historical and comparative grammar. Written and oral translation exercises. Italian literature compared with foreign literatures. Four lessons per week.

2.—Literary and historical discussions. Italian composition. Analysis of and contents of old and modern books. Four lessons per week.

3.—Latin language and literature. Two lessons per week.

4.—Conversation. Two lessons per week.

In addition to these courses, special lectures are held at least twice a week on the most important and characteristic aspects of Italian life and culture. In 1926 lectures were held in Italian on the following subjects:

Benedict xi and Dante at Perugia. Professor Luigi Tarulli.
Jacopone da Todi. Professor Aurelio Alunno.
Lectures on Saint Francis. Dr. G. Casamichela, Professor at Royal University of Groningen, Holland.
Franciscan souls in the poetry of Giovanni Pascoli. Professor Mariano F. Antoniacci.
The work of Count Cavour. Professor Emilio Robiony.
Why Italy intervened in the World War. Professor Emilio Robiony.
Italy and modern scientific thought. Dr. Guido Bupattelli.
Wagner and Italy. Maestro Antonio Sani.
Internationalism and nationalism in music. Maestro Antonio Sani.
Contemporary Italian music. Maestro Armando Mercuri.
Contemporary Italian art. G. Dottori.
The theatre of Luigi Pirandello. Professor Emilio Nicasi.
Italian literature since Carducci. Professor Carlo Culcasi.

Students wishing to register at the Royal Italian University for Foreigners must apply at the Office of the Secretary, Piazza Fortebraccio, Palazzo Gallenga, Perugia. The application must contain the name of the student, name of his or her parents, place and date of birth, place of residence, and exact address. In the case of foreign students no diploma or academic degree is necessary to register for any of the courses. Italian students, however, who wish to register for graduate courses must possess the maturity diploma from a secondary school.

The examination and registration fees are as follows:

	Lire
For graduate courses:	
For one month	150
For all courses during the period	300
For individual courses and lectures	fee to be fixed
For courses in the Italian language and literature:	
For lower course	200
For higher course	300
Supplementary fee for graduate courses	50

The Executive Council has authority to grant partial or total exemption from the payment of fees to certain classes of students.

The examination and diploma fees are fifty and thirty lire respectively, and the certificate of attendance is twenty lire.

Both Italian and foreign students who attend classes regularly in the graduate courses receive a certificate of attendance. Foreign students who attend graduate courses in the Italian language and literature receive a certificate of attendance. In addition, foreign students who attend the higher course in the Italian language and literature regularly and who pass the written and oral examinations receive the qualifying diploma for teaching Italian language in foreign countries. The written examination includes: (a) either a report in Italian on a literary or political subject studied during the course, or an analysis of a poem or a simple prose selection by a modern author. This test lasts five hours. (b) translation into Italian of a passage from French, English, or German prose, according to the native language of the candidate. This test lasts three hours. The oral examination includes: (a) questions on the general history of Italian literature and especially on the principal writers of the various epochs. (b) reading and explanation of a poem or a prose selection chosen by the examiner. Each oral test lasts twenty minutes. The examination commission is composed of at least three members.

Students enrolled at the Royal University for Foreigners are entitled to reduced railroad fares. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs also grants a reduction of fifty per cent on passport fees. In addition students receive special reductions in the hotels and restaurants of Perugia. The Office of the Secretary of the University helps students to find suitable room and board with Italian families. During the session, students are admitted free of charge to all the art galleries, museums and libraries. Some of these institutions enjoy world-wide fame and include the Royal Gallery Vannucci, the Etruscan-Roman Museum, the Roman Mosaic, the Chapel of the *Cambio,* the Municipal Library, etc. The Pro Umbria Society organizes excursions to artistic and historical cities of the region: Assisi, Todi, Gubbio, Foligno, Orvieto, Montefalco, Spoleto, Città di Castello. These automobile trips are held at reduced rates for students.

CHAPTER IV.

THE GENTILE REFORM UNDER CRITICISM

Interpretation of the Reform

The Gentile reform has met wide-spread opposition especially among those who have been unfavorably affected by the recent changes in educational methods and procedures. The reform has been attacked especially by publishers who have been compelled to discard books already in print, by students who have been found unfit for certain types of studies and who, therefore, will not be able to secure a long cherished diploma, by teachers who have been called upon to give a strict account of their work, and finally by all those who have been compelled to work much harder than they were accustomed to under the old régime. But these "defects" are the result of a new system which arises and destroys the old — they are inevitable. Yet the only method of testing the efficacy of the reform is by comparing the old with the new organization to see whether the latter answers the new concept of education, and the national ideals of Italy.

While it is true that the Gentile reform has been severely criticized, yet very few have ventured to pass unfavorable judgment on the spirit of the reform. The most common criticisms heard in connection with the programs of studies of the elementary and secondary schools are that too much time is spent on a particular writer, that many teachers will be unable to conduct their classes effectively, that there are no text-books for this or that subject. But the fact remains, and this is admitted by the opposition, that the programs of the elemenary and secondary schools aim at vitalizing the school and at the ennoblement of the culture of students and teachers. Professor Mariano Maresca, for example, is opposed to the elementary school reform, yet in an article published in April, 1924, he defends the philosophic principles of idealism in the present system of education. While he favors the reform of the secondary schools and higher institutions, he is opposed to the changes introduced in elementary education because here the aims are not only different but diametrically opposed to the other reforms. It is pointed out that while the secondary school reform deals with the program of studies and

the combination of courses all aiming to uplift the ideals of students, the elementary school reform, on the other hand, conflicts with the very content of elementary instruction. Professor Maresca is opposed to religious instruction because he believes that it will divorce religion from life and will inevitably create an antinomy between religious dogmatism and the critical mind.

Another critic of the Gentile reform is Achille Monti who, in a series of articles published in 1923, gives his reasons for his opposition. In the first article entitled "Liberal Prejudices," Monti attacks the reform on account of its antiliberalism and sectarianism, and condemns the Fascist conception of State. In the second article Monti compares the reform outlined by Croce as Minister of Public Instruction with the Gentile reform. Monti endeavors to show that the two are essentially different and that Croce's was much more valuable that Gentile's. He remarks: "Croce's reform was truly liberal, Gentile's is anti-liberal and Fascist." Yet in a previous chapter we have seen that Croce's reform was in perfect unison with Gentile's philosophy. After all in order to remove all doubts it is sufficient to recall Croce's letter to the *Giornale d'Italia* in which he defends the recent reforms. The changes introduced by Gentile are the logical result of the new conception of Italian culture. The Gentile reform does not, as Monti says, overlook the historical reality of the school and impose extrinsically an abstract law to concrete life, but, on the contrary, it aims to bring about a nobler realization of this concrete life. What may be called anti-historical is the former school organization which stifled the life of the school and divorced it more and more from the realities of life. The Gentile reform would have been anti-liberal if it had retained the former organization in spite of its glaring and recognized defects. And the proof of this is the statement of numerous teachers and professors to the effect that they had already introduced in their teaching certain features of the Gentile reform but that they were handicapped by the numerous and insurmountable obstacles of the old regulations. To have removed these obstacles, therefore, is the most liberal work that Gentile could have accomplished as Minister of Public Instruction.

In the third article Monti attacks the organization of the

reform. He begins the article by saying: "When we say the Gentile reform we refer to the reform of the secondary school, which constitutes the most essential part of the work of the Fascist Minister of Public Instruction." Monti attacks Gentile for favoring the classical schools, the institutions for the wealthy, at the expense of the technical institutes which are attended by students from the middle class. He argues that if it were necessary to reduce the number of schools, all types of institutions should have been proportionately reduced. The Fascist Government should have favored the schools for the poor and not the institutions for the rich classes. Yet Gentile has done just this. The new reforms aim to limit the enrolment in schools for the children of the rich, while the enrolment is unlimited in the complementary, vocational, commercial, and art schools.

It is insufficient to state that the Gentile reform is Fascist, for it does not favor any one party. It is strictly Italian. Gentile was a Fascist during his tenure of office, but he was always an educator. All his work as Minister was superior to the spirit of the party. Furthermore, some of the ablest collaborators of Gentile, such as Lombardo-Radice, were not Fascists. Another proof of this is the fact that the Fascist Congress held in Naples in 1922 voted against the state examinations. What is meant by the statement that the Gentile reform is Fascist is the fact that it is something in which the Government has taken a great deal of pride and has, therefore, accepted and enfoced it. Gentile in a recent speech said that "there is a kind of politics which must not contaminate the school, as it must not contaminate religion, science, art and, in fact, it must not contaminate man in general: that is the cheap politics of selfish interests, factions, egoists, narrow-minded individuals who, as a rule, are persons who do not visualize nor wish to see the Nation as a State." But there is another kind of politics which the Government wishes to introduce into the school and that is "national politics, the creative will of national life."

GENTILE'S RESIGNATION AND RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

Gentile resigned from the Ministry of Public Instruction after holding that office for twenty months. The reasons for his resignation are independent of the school reform. Gentile is acclaimed

the philosopher of Fascism and by virtue of his character he will doubtless be in a better position to uphold the ideals of Fascism in private life. He deemed it his duty to return to the teaching profession where he could prepare the coming generation to properly value and interpret the political doctrines of Fascism. Gentile left his office with the knowledge that he had instilled new vigor and energy into the school; he left an administration which, with a greatly reduced personnel and with only nineteen supervisors, continued his work *ab imis*.

Gentile was succeeded by Minister Mario Casati who, in turn, has recently been followed by Minister Pietro Fedele. Both of these men have publicly declared their intention to uphold the spirit of the Gentile reform. Casati who, as vice-president of the Higher Council of Public Instruction, had the opportunity to follow closely the work of Gentile stated that even if he were opposed to the reform, he could not destroy all that had already been accomplished. Furthermore, he made clear that the reform was not the outcome of a political moment, but the result of twenty years discussions in educational circles. The difficulties, if any, were due to its scope, to the short time in which it had been in force, and to the complexity of the political moment in which the reform was carried out. It was evident that even those who were opposed to the reform recognized that one of the greatest needs of the country was the introduction of a severe and strict discipline in the school. With reference to elementary education no improvements were suggested, although some minor changes were considered in secondary education especially the regulations concerning the teaching personnel and the financial organization of the schools. Casati devoted all his efforts to solving the problem of pensions for elementary school teachers and to improving the salaries of secondary school instructors.

THE GENTILE REFORM IN THE ITALIAN SENATE

The discussion in the Italian Senate at its session of February 3, 1925, concerning the budget of the Ministry of Public Instruction for the fiscal year July 1, 1924, to June 30, 1925, revealed many differences of opinion as to the merits of the Gentile reform.

The organization of the central and regional administrations was attacked by senators Pais and Credaro, the former assailing the regional distribution of supervisors, the latter assailing not only this point but also the reduction of the central inspectors and the suppression of the secondary regional inspectors. It was stated that the reduction of the supervisors from provincial to regional lines had brought about a serious gap because of a greater concentration of power in certain individuals. With reference to the reduction of the central inspectors and the suppression of regional inspectors Gentile in a speech before the Senate said: "I am convinced, like many others, that the school is a spiritual individuality, that the school should not be subject to foreign and indiscreet interference, that in the school the pupil must be with the instructor and the instructor with his pupil in an inimate life, a life which should not be subject to the suspicion of judges who suddenly come in from the outside. Both instructors and deans fully secure this individuality which must free itself from all interferences, which cannot but arrest and disturb this life."

With reference to secondary education, several senators attacked the combination of courses, programs, and state examinations. There was some difference of opinion concerning the grouping of various subjects. Senator Tamassia said that it was unfair to compel an instructor to teach more than one subject. Senator Pais added that the grouping of courses was an absurdity, arguing that it is a mistake to combine such courses as history and philosophy because "history searches and examines facts whereas philosophy, which often loses itself in abstraction, is based on fixed principles and judges facts according to belief." Senator Torraca said that it was unfair to compel a teacher to teach any other subject besides that for which he secured the appointment at the time of the competitive examination. Senator Vitelli, on the other hand, spoke favorably of the grouping of the various subjects, and suggested the combination of mathematics and physics. Senator Scialoia also believed that subjects should be grouped, but suggested that "they should not be grouped mechanically, but that each case should be examined separately."

A great deal has been said in Italian educational circles concerning the grouping of subjects. Even before the Gentile reform

various courses were combined in the lower and higher courses of the gymnasium. To have introduced this system then in all first grade schools, and to a certain extent in the schools of the second grade, merely confirms the statement made by Senator Vitelli to the effect that the "didactic ability of the teacher should and must be more exhaustive than his scientific ability." The objection to the combination of courses seems to be voiced largely by those teachers who are not over anxious to do any extra work. But the reform is attempting to drive these teachers away from the schools.

The courses of study of secondary schools were also seriously attacked. Senator Tamassia defined them as "suffering from ideals," and prepared by one "who has not had any experience in the school." Senator Morello stated that they were "apparently in need of revision." Perhaps the programs should be revised and modified. But it must be understood that whatever faults the programs contain are due not to their amplitude or to their inspiration but to their determination.

The state examination was also attacked. Senator Tamassia while admitting that the state examination is "an excellent means for obaining a positive test of the preparation of the student," is somewhat skeptical of this cry of "sincerity." Senator Vitelli was more specific in his remarks. He has noted the efficacy of the state examination but does not believe that professors should be excluded from examining commissions in cases where they have personally instructed students.

Various senators attacked the provision limiting the number of students in secondary schools. They referred to the "privileged students" and in doing so they have merely repeated the objections raised by the opposition newspapers. The secondary school is not closed to any social group. It is closed only to careless and carefree students, regardless of whether they are rich or poor. The secondary school is not and should not be opened to everybody but is and should be opened to use an appropriate expression of Senator Montresor, "to all those who are gifted mentally and are willing to work." From this point of view, the reform is

indeed liberal if by liberalism we mean not individual liberalism but Gentilian liberalism which subordinates the individual to the State.

Forty-seven senators all connected with various university faculties took advantage of the opportunity to attack that phase of the Gentile reform dealing with the organization of higher studies, maintaining that while in theory the reform created university autonomy, in reality it destroyed the former traditional liberty enjoyed by the universities. It was said that the old régime had been in force for seventy years and had given good results. After a year's trial of the Gentile reform, the general criticism was that the economic difficulties of life have been especially severe among the Italian middle class, and that the Gentile reform by rendering higher education more difficult and the institutions more costly, has increased the burdens of this class, insofar as it will cost more money to give children a higher education. Everyone recognizes the abstract merits of the reform; its noble aims to elevate the status of culture and to establish a more rigorous selection of professors. But it is believed that the present is not the most appropriate time to put it into effect. The middle class should be given time to reestablish its fortunes and find new outlets for its industrial and commercial activities.

The present Minister of Public Instruction, Pietro Fedele, made a declaration on January 9, 1925, to the effect that complete reversion to the previous system could not be expected. He has not introduced any significant changes in the Gentile reform. Naturally the programs of study have been touched up a little here and there, with the tendency to make the secondary program somewhat easier. There has also been a tendency during 1926, at the desire of Premier Mussolini, to increase the amount of religious instruction, and to bring the schools into somewhat closer relations with the Church. Another tendency at the present moment is to increase the amount of instruction in hygiene, to give better medical care to pupils, and to study the school buildings with more emphasis on their hygienic character. A committee composed of hygienic and pedagogic experts has been appointed to make a careful investigation in this field. Outside of this the only change has been in the recent law increasing the pensions for school teachers.

CHAPTER V.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In reviewing the state of education in Italy it may be summarized as follows: The World War stimulated a keener appreciation than had before existed of the importance of education for national welfare. The strides made in organization have been great, and the spread of knowledge has been more rapid as well as wider than was the case before the Gentile reform. But the advances actually made so far are in outlook and organization mainly, and until the financial stress of the time passes and the freer provision of public funds becomes practicable, the full advantages of what has been recently accomplished can hardly be reaped.

The national life of a people is embodied in its educational system. The schooling and the apprenticeship which it evolves for the training and discipline of its youth reflect the national ideals and aspirations, the national aims and beliefs. By looking into a system of learning under which a student grows from childhood to maturity we discover the material from which his thought is fed, the purposes and relative values which his mind is trained to accept. The ideal education is a continuous development, building-up the firm chain of succession and sequence, the strength of united purpose and action, and the value and importance of combination. Where national life is normal and consistent, we find educational methods correspondingly continuous and natural, expressing, as well as forming, the temper of the people. Accepting this view of education as a national function, we recognize that the principles of education must be constantly challenged, its practice constantly revised, according to the changing demands of the times. The lessons of recent experience have emphasized this necessity for vigilance; and the problems of education must be faced with equal regard for the needs of individual self-government, of vocational efficiency and of national service. It is for this reason that the work of reconstruction which has been going on in Italy by the impulse of the Fascist Government could not be limited to the economic, social, financial, military, and bureaucratic factors, but it was also necessary to involve the moral and educa-

tional life of the Nation, without which any other radical reform would have remained ineffectual and at most of temporary value.

The pre-Gentile school lacked leadership. Students had no clear conception of their duties, professors did not fully appreciate their responsibilities, teachers were unprepared for their glorious tasks. The school as organized by Gentile aims to educate the whole man: the physical, the social, the aesthetic, the religious, the intellectual aspects, each in its appropriate manner. Religious instruction is compulsory in the schools. As the physical individuality of the child develops into consciousness his conative and mental capacity develops with it. Freedom of choice gives him new activities. These activities are the outcome of his self-directing energies and they have values which vary. What education has to do is to bring into his consciousness ever-increasing interests and values. The child has to be guided in the fashioning of his experience and to the most valuable forms of activity in fashioning it. His tendencies in conation are thus set in higher directions and his experience is enriched by the new memories which influence his choices. The ideas that often seemed most attractive are thus to be refashioned in the earliest form of school. The meanings of the things around are expanded and connected together. The original attitude towards events is modified and further experience creates new dispositions. Here the teacher has his opportunities. The teacher must influence the environment, and so direct development under his influence. The influence of his own personality counts for much, even in the infant school, and the example he sets, mental and moral, counts for certainly not less in the subsequent stages of education. The old psychological notions were insufficient insofar as they treated knowledge as a merely passive interpretation of external experience. We have learned that knowledge is an activity which changes even that experience for him who possesses it, and therefore requires adequate stimulus from within and direction from without. The giving of these is the work of the teacher throughout his whole career, and it depends primarily on his developed personality as well as on the individuality of his pupil. The school is the environment in which he works and the influence which he directs. Gentile warns that if the school cannot shape men it "should at

least rough-hew them and give them a conscience, whereas now it teaches but often does not educate: it gives to the learner the means of culture, and then abandons him to his own resources." Teachers, according to Gentile, should "learn to react against a system of education which, conceiving its rôle to be merely intellectualistic, and such as to make of the human spirit a clear mirror of things, proceeds to an infinite subdivision to match the infinite multiplicity of things. Unity ought to be our constant aim. We should never look away from the living, that is, the person, the pupil into whose soul our loving solicitude should arrive to gain access in order to help create his own world."

As a direct result of the reform, Italy is well on the way to solve her illiteracy problem. The rural schools are now being attended by the children of school-age, suitable measures are now being taken to bring about the attendance of every child at school. Through Gentile's efforts, the educational budget of Italy has been increased by several hundred million lire, and this in spite of the economic measures of Mussolini who also, however, wants money spent liberally for public education. Already one-third more money is being spent on schools than was spent before the War. "We cannot afford to save on schools," Mussolini advises, "particularly the country schools so long neglected."

In secondary institutes the ordinary text-book as been discarded and has been replaced by the study of the classics — Homer, Virgil, and others. The modern Italian poets and prose writers — the moulders of national consciousness — Parini, Alfieri, Manzoni, Carducci, are also studied. It has been suggested that the programs are overcrowded with philosophy and the classics, while scientific subjects could be strengthened. Certain changes may probably be made in the future, but the great spirit of the reform with its fundamental characteristics cannot and will not be altered. A system of education must not be condemned for defects which can only be remedied by experience.

The Italian Government is definitely headed in the direction of putting an end to old abuses and backward conditions of long standing. Educationally, Italy has frittered itself away trying to keep up a brood of universities, instead of supporting a few of the really strong centers of education which she undoubtedly has. Mussolini has taken the fateful step of cutting off from the state

exchequer a number of minor universities, and in this procedure he had the full support of the government machinery. Another interesting feature of the recent changes is the strong desire to establish fellowships. The impelling motive in the fellowships is perhaps more than of getting foreign students to Italy than the other way around. Italy has vigorous scientific traditions, and perhaps also a number of eminent men that may do good work when the Government concentrates its efforts on providing adequate material facilities at a few strong university centers.

The results of the Gentile reform are forthcoming, although it will take some time before its full-value becomes evident. That Mussolini is not disappointed with the work of Gentile is indicated in a recent remark that the educational reform is the most Fascist of all the reforms of the New Government. Fascism is the exaltation and ennoblement of all the elements concurring to form and assure the greatness of Italy — the problem of its greatness is, above all, a problem of education and culture.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

NEW ORGANIZATION OF MINISTRY OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

ORGANIZATION AND POWERS OF MINISTRY AND ADVISORY BODIES

Royal Decree, July 16, 1923, No. 1735*

Article 1.—The Ministry of Public Instruction has charge of elementary, secondary, and higher education, and of the antiquities and the fine arts.

Article 2.—The Ministry is composed of four general departments each having a number of divisions and sections.

The Minister has the power to request the services of any person at the Office of the Ministry for a period not exceeding two years, for special tasks which must be specified in the decree requesting such services; he may also require the services of other government officials or of university or secondary school professors, the total number of these men not to exceed six.

Article 3.—The authorities attached to the Central Administration of Public Instruction are:

(a) The Minister.

(b) The Undersecretary of State.

(c) The general directors of elementary, secondary, and higher education, and of the antiquities and the fine arts.

Article 4.—The Minister governs and promotes public instruction and national education; supervises the private schools under the care of state institutions; is responsible for public order, morality, and culture; encourages the study of the fine arts; and has charge of the artistic treasures of the nation.

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*Published in the *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, No. 193, August 17, 1923. The regulations of this decree replaced those in Chapter 1 of the Casati law. The Royal Decree of January 11, 1923, No. 147, abolished the Central Commission for the Spread of Education in the South and in the Islands. The powers of that Commission have been assumed by the Ministry.

He has firm control of the administrative relations between his subordinates; he decides disputes which arise between them and amends or annuls their actions insofar as these are not in harmony with laws and regulations. He has final pronouncement on appeals.

Article 5.—The Undersecretary of State co-operates with the Ministry as stipulated in the present regulations.

Article 6.—The advisory boards connected with the Central Administration of Public Instruction are:

(a) The Superior Council and the Superior Council Board of Public Instruction.

(b) The Central Commission and the Central Commission Board for the Antiquities and the Fine Arts.

(c) The Commission on appeals of elementary teachers and the disciplinary charges against them (First Commission).

(d) The Commission on appeals of secondary school instructors and the disciplinary charges against them (Second Commission).

No other permanent advisory body may be created in the Central Administration, except by law.

Article 7.—The Superior Council of Public Instruction is composed of twenty-one members in addition to the Minister, who is the presiding officer.

The advisors of public instruction are appointed by the King, on the proposal of the Minister. At least twelve are chosen from among the ordinary professors of the universities and higher institutes under the control of the Ministry of Public Instruction, three from each faculty; the other members are chosen from among the scientific and educational experts.

The advisors hold office for seven years, but at the end of the first four years ten will be replaced by lot.

Article 8.—The Superior Council, when not presided over by the Minister personally, is presided over by a vice-president appointed by the King from among the advisors for a period of four and three years alternately.

The presence of fifteen advisors is necessary for the legal transaction of business.

Article 9.—The Superior Council decides on all questions referred to it by the regulations in force; delivers opinion on all

matters concerning elementary, secondary, and higher instruction which the Minister submits to it for examination; has the power to inspect the universities and higher institutes; carries out investigations and reports to the Minister on the general condition of public instruction.

Article 10.—The Board of the Superior Council of Public Instruction is composed of the vice-president of the Council who is the presiding officer, and of eight members chosen by the Minister from among the advisors.

The presence of at least five members of the Board is required for the legal transaction of business.

Article 11.—The membership and powers of the Central Commission and the Central Commission Board for Antiquities and Fine Arts are stipulated in the royal decrees of December 21, 1922, No. 1726 and May 6, 1923, No. 1040.

Article 12.—The First Commission is composed of the Director General of Elementary Education and of six members appointed by the Minister as follows:

(a) Three legal and educational experts.

(b) One educational director of a municipality which has retained the administration of the elementary schools.

(c) Two elementary school teachers who have completed at least ten years of permanent service.

The president of the commission is appointed by the Minister from among the members mentioned in paragraph (a) of this article.

Article 13.—The Second Commission is composed of the General Director of Secondary Education and six members appointed by the Minister as follows:

(a) Three legal and educational experts.

(b) A principal of a secondary school of the second grade.

(c) A permanent teacher of a secondary school of the second grade.

(d) A director or a titular instructor of a standardized or private secondary school.

The president of the commission is appointed by the Minister from among the members mentioned in paragraph (a) of this article.

The presence of at least five members of the Commission is required for the legal transaction of business.

Article 14.—The presidents and members of the First and Second commissions hold office for four years, but at the end of the first two years, one-half of them will be replaced by lot.

Article 15.—Members of the advisory boards who do not reside in Rome, although not state employees, shall receive a daily fee and shall be re-imbursed for their traveling expenses in accordance with regulations which shall be established by a decree of the Minister of Public Instruction in agreement with that of the Minister of Finance.

The vice-presidents of the Superior Council of Public Instruction and of the Central Commission for Antiquities and Fine Arts and the presidents of the First and Second commissions shall receive a yearly salary of three thousand lire; other members of the same bodies, with the exception of the general directors, shall receive two thousand lire annually.

Article 16.—On the day on which this decree goes into effect the sections of the Board of Superior Council for Elementary and Secondary Education will cease to exist, and the terms of office of the members of these sections as well as those of the present members of the Superior Council and of the Board of Higher Council of Public Instruction shall expire.

Article 17.—All dispositions contrary to those contained in the present decree, which shall go into force from the day of its publication in the *Gazzetta Ufficiale* of the Kingdom, are repealed.

APPENDIX B

DISTRIBUTION OF THE SERVICES OF THE CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION

Ministerial Decree, June 28, 1923.

Minister's Cabinet.—Relations with the two branches of Parliament (questionings, interpellations, etc.). Matters to be submitted to the Council of Ministers; decrees for royal signature; matters which the Minister reserves for himself; private correspondence of the Minister; interviews; review of political press; relations with the press; knighthood honors; foreign honors; distribution of miscellaneous expenses; accountant's office.

Cabinet of the Undersecretary of State.—Relations with the Chamber of Deputies (questionings, etc.). Matters which the Undersecretary reserves for himself; correspondence of the Undersecretary; interviews.

Autonomous Division:

Division I.—General matters; personnel of central and regional administrations; administration of the Ministry and of the regional supervisors.

Section I.—General matters concerning the personnel of the Ministry and of the subordinate administrations; provisions concerning the permanent personnel of the central and regional administrations; subordinate and temporary personnel; Administrative and Disciplinary councils; controversies before the ordinary magistrate's office or state council on matters pertaining to the personnel; publication of seniority lists; subsidies to active employees of the central and regional administrations; salaries to employees and teachers and their families belonging to the Administration; matriculation; railroad privileges and controversies relating thereto; general protocol.

Section II.—General administrative matters; buildings; leases; office expenses of the central and regional administrations; construction of new buildings of the Ministry; deeds; contracts; cases before the ordinary magistrate's office; boarding colleges for orphans of Italian physicians in Perugia (compilation of list of compulsory contributors and controversies relating thereto); *Yearbook* of the Ministry; publication and administration of the *Bollettino Ufficiale;* national editions; encouragement of publications for the promotion of letters and sciences; competitions for prizes awarded by the Ministry; National Committee for the History of the Risorgimento; intellectual relations with foreign countries; scientific congresses; postal and telegraph exemptions; archives; bureau of accounts and funds.

GENERAL DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION

Division II.—General matters; personnel; legislation; disputes.

Section I.—General matters; personnel of the General Bureau; school legislation; councils for elementary schools; school inspectors; educational directors.

Section II.—Competitions; awards for merit; elementary teachers; queries; administrative disputes; legal disputes.

Division III.—School organization.

Section I.—Kindergartens and preparation of kindergarten teachers; establishment of schools; boundary of divisions and jurisdictions; classification and reorganization of schools; relief schools; schools established on trust; rules for the establishment of recognized organizations (*enti morali*).

Section II.—Supplementary school work (assistance to children, mountain and seashore colonies, differential schools; truant education, evening schools, popular libraries, school co-operatives, etc.). Private schools; institutes for blind and deaf; elementary schools of the Tuscan conservatories and Colleges of Mary in Sicily; school legacies and foundations; patronages; subsidies and miscellaneous grants (technical judgment concerning the merit of concession).

Division IV.—Statistics and publications.

Section I.—Statistics; publication of the General Department; maps of school services.

Section II.—Consultations; collection of inspectors' reports; collection of magazines; collection of material for guides to school services; organization of school holidays; prizes for and encouragement of the improvement of education of teachers, etc.

Division V.—School administration; hygiene; buildings.

Section I.—Budgets; competitive examinations and reimbursements; accountancy; pensions; teachers' funds; National Institute for the Education and Instruction of Orphans of Elementary School Teachers and Educational Directors; miscellaneous subsidies and grants.

Section II.—Loans; school equipment; school hygiene; health bureaus of regional supervisors; technical bureau for the examination of plans for school buildings.

GENERAL DEPARTMENT FOR SECONDARY AND NORMAL EDUCATION

Division VI.—Private and accredited institutions; establishment of government schools, their organization and administration.

Section I.—Private instruction; accreditation of schools; accredited schools; establishment of royal schools and conversion of schools into royal institutions.

Section II.—Relations between recognized organizations (*enti*) and the State for the support of government schools; contributions; control of the funds administered by the General Department.

Section III.—General organization of secondary schools; boards of secondary education; study of final agreements; statistics; teaching and scientific equipment; buildings and equipment; subsidies; teaching licences.

Division VII.—Personnel of classical and technical schools.

Section I.—Personnel of lyceums; gymnasiums; permanent staffs; legal appeals and disputes.

Section II.—Personnel of technical institutes and scientific lyceums; permanent staffs; legal appeals and disputes.

Division VIII.—Personnel of complementary schools and teachers' institutes; institutes for education of girls.

Section I.—Personnel of complementary schools; permanent staffs; licensure; legal appeals and disputes.

Section II.—Personnel of teachers' institutes and lyceums for girls; institutes and conservatories for girls; Colleges of Mary of Sicily; permanent staffs; legal appeals and disputes.

Division IX.—Examinations; foundations; boarding schools.

Section I.—Students and examinations; scholarships and grants to lyceums; school funds and school legacies; hygiene; relation between the State and the National Organization for Physical Education.

Section II.—National boarding schools; personnel; administration; free and partly free board; private boarding schools.

GENERAL DEPARTMENT FOR HIGHER EDUCATION AND LIBRARIES

Division X.—General matters; personnel of universities and higher institutions and libraries; scientific and literary institutes and organizations.

Section I.—General matters and personnel of the General Department; Superior Council of Public Instruction; Advisory and Library Board; legislation and organization of studies; private docentship; scientific and literary academies and societies; Deputation and Society of National History; academic pensions; matriculation.

Section II.—Executive and teaching staffs of universities, of higher institutions and of higher normal institutes; personnel of astronomical observatories; administrative personnel of universities.

Section III.—Bibliographical supervision; personnel of government public libraries; assistant, technical, substitute, and miscellaneous personnel of the universities and institutes of higher education.

Division XI.—Buildings and equipment of universities, institutes of higher education and libraries; students; foundations; gifts; legacies; work of libraries.

Section I.—Buildings and equipment of universities, institutes of higher education and libraries; bibliographical equipment; administration of endowments and other ordinary and extraordinary funds; grants to scientific and literary institutes and societies; bookkeeping.

Section II—Students; places of undergraduate and graduate study; foundations; gifts; legacies; national and international loans of books and manuscripts; international exchanges; special government libraries not opened to the public; supervision of public non-government libraries and bibliographical equipment of civil, ecclesiastical and private recognized organizations (*enti*).

GENERAL DEPARTMENT OF ANTIQUITIES AND FINE ARTS:

Divisions XII and XIII.—Omitted.

Royal Decree of April 29, 1923, No. 953, abolished the position of Undersecretary of State for Antiquities and Fine Arts which had been established by the Royal Decree of October 3, 1919, No. 1792.

APPENDIX C

REORGANIZATION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

GRADES, PROGRAMS, EXAMINATIONS, AND HOURS

Royal Decree, October 1, 1923, No. 2185

Types of Schools:

Article 1.—Elementary instruction is divided into three grades: preparatory, lower, and higher.

The duration of the preparatory grade is normally three years.

The lower grade is completed in three years; the higher in at least two years.

Article 2.—The classes beyond the fifth are known as supplementary classes for vocational training.

The sixth elementary class, existing in schools on the date in which the present decree is published, shall be supported for three years as a supplementary class.

During these three years the royal supervisor shall decide whether the class shall be retained permanently, provided that the school has a sufficiently large number of pupils in attendance and possesses adequate resources and personnel for theoretical and practical vocational training.

Supplementary classes beyond the sixth and up to the eighth may be established provided that the municipality, with the possible aid of other organizations, agrees to supply the educational equipment and personnel for practical vocational training.

The pupils beyond the fifth grade may, whenever their number does not warrant the formation of separate higher classes, be instructed by the same teacher and at the same hours. The program of general supplementary culture shall be the same for all but

for the practical work of vocational training. They shall be divided into groups or classes, independently of the year of study.

The royal supervisor shall give recognition to popular vocational schools of any denomination not forming an integral part of a secondary vocational school if their curriculum is equivalent to that of the higher supplementary classes from the fifth to the eighth grade of the elementary schools. Such schools shall be under the educational control of the supervisor.

The funds allotted in the provincial and municipal budgets for the support and subsidizing of the popular schools for vocational training shall be under legal control.

PROGRAMS OF INSTRUCTION

Article 3.—The teaching of the Christian doctrine in accordance with the Catholic faith shall form the basis and aim of elementary education in all its grades.

Religious instruction shall be given on the days and hours established in accordance with the regulation, by such of the teachers in the schools as are deemed competent for this task or by other persons recommended by the school council and approved by the royal educational supervisor. In judging the fitness of teachers or other persons to impart religious instruction, the royal supervisor shall be guided by the opinion of the ecclesiastical authorities.

Children whose parents wish to provide religious education personally are exempted from religious instruction in the schools.

Article 4.—In all the elementary schools of the Kingdom, instruction is imparted in the national language.

In municipalities in which a different tongue is commonly spoken, the local language shall be taught in additional hours.

Instruction in the local language is compulsory for pupils who speak it and for those who have been registered for such instruction at the beginning of the year by the parents and mayors.

The programs and hours of instruction in the local language shall be determined by an ordinance of the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Article 5.—Teachers who instruct their own or other classes of the same school in the local language in additional hours shall receive salary increases a year in advance of the prescribed periods, provided that in the opinion of the inspector, their work has been satisfactory.

Article 6.—Whenever it is not possible to entrust the teaching of the local language to the regular class teacher or to another teacher of Italian in the same school, the instruction in the local language shall be entrusted to qualified teachers. They, on the recommendation of the educational director and of the royal inspector and with the approval of the royal educational supervisor, shall teach in various schools which for this purpose shall be conveniently grouped in districts.

Article 7.—The program of the preparatory grade is recreational in nature and aims to train the early manifestations of intelligence and character in the child.

In addition to the very simple prayers it includes: singing and musical sounds; spontaneous drawing; gymnastics; easy exercises of construction, plastic art, and other manual work; gardening and raising of domestic animals; elements of popular knowledge and correction of prejudices and popular superstitions.

Article 8.—Instruction in the lower grade includes, in addition to the work of the preparatory grade which shall be enlarged, singing, drawing in relation to other subjects, and gymnastics. The program is as follows:

(1) Prayers and fundamental ideas of Christian doctrine; brief and clear sentences and simple narrations taken from the Scriptures, especially from the Gospels; stories from the Bible; illustrations of the *Pater*.

(2) Reading and writing.

(3) Teaching of elementary arithmetic and elements of the metric system.

(4) Oral translations from the dialects, simple expository written exercises, recitation of national hymns and poems.

(5) Extramural studies including visits to agricultural and industrial works; art collections, relics and monuments.

(6) Rudiments of geography.

In places where higher grade classes are not established, the history of the Italian Risorgimento (the accomplishment of the independence of Italy) up to the present time shall also be taught in the lower grade.

Article 9.—The curriculum of the higher grade, up to the fifth class, is a systematic development of that of the lower grade, with special emphasis on historical readings on the Catholic religion and on local and national traditions. It includes:

(1) Lessons on the Catholic faith and dogma, based on the ten commandements and on the parables of the Gospels; instruction in the principles of religious life and worship and on the sacraments and rites of the Catholic Church.

(2) Reading of useful books to orient the child on domestic and social problems.

(3) History and geography, with special attention to Italy; studies and readings on the geography, administration, agriculture, industries, commerce, banking, and the conditions of the labor market of the countries towards which the permanent or temporary regional migratory currents are directed.

(4) Studies and readings on the organization of the State; on the administration of justice and the duties and rights of man and citizen; principles of economy.

(5) Elementary geometry and arithmetic.

(6) Elements of sciences; collection of specimens during school excursions; hygiene.

(7) Applied drawing.

(8) Gymnastics.

Article 10.—Instruction in classes beyond the fifth grade includes advanced work in the subjects of the fourth and fifth classes supplemented by extensive readings. In addition, two-year courses in at least three of the following: working drawings, plastics, elementary mechanical drawing, elementary principles of domestic electrical apparatus, applied agriculture, apprenticeship in the manual arts, and naval principles and exercises, cutting and sewing, cooking and household arts, embroidery, principles and practice of bookkeeping.

Other courses may be established on the recommendation of the school council and with the approval of the royal supervisor.

Article 11.—In all girls' schools domestic science shall be added to the course of study in all classes, and in the higher classes, domestic economy with suitable experiments.

The schools shall be supplied, within the limits and resources indicated from time to time by a ministerial ordinance under the auspices of the school *patronato,* with suitable mechanical equipment for the visual and phonetic demonstration of class work.

EXAMINATIONS

Article 12.—The proficiency examination for the pupils of each elementary grade, excepting the kindergarten classes, shall take place in the class under the supervision of the teacher and in the presence of an examiner appointed by the educational director from among the teachers of the grades higher than that in which the examination is being held.

For promotion to the fourth and sixth classes the examination shall take place before a commission of three members, among whom shall be the teacher of the class being examined.

Article 13.—The public elementary schools award the following certificates based on examination: certificate of promotion and of entrance to the various classes; certificate of lower elementary studies, given at the completion of the third grade; certificate for the completion of the fifth grade; final certificate for compulsory school attendance and for special fitness for work, awarded after the last year of compulsory school attendance, for special proficiency in vocational training.

SCHOOL YEAR

Article 14.—The normal duration of the school year is ten months.

In municipalities where pupils are, for economic reasons, usually unable to attend school for so great a part of the year, the school months may be reduced to a lower number, provided that the amount of work covered is equal to that established for schools with a ten-months' course.

Article 15.—Each educational director shall, at the beginning of the year, determine the school calendar and hours of instruction in accordance with the exigencies of his district and of the special zones, and shall communicate these with his ordinance to the teachers under his jurisdiction, and shall notify the royal school inspector.

The royal school inspector may modify the calendar and hours of instruction if they fail to provide at least 180 days of school work, or if they do not meet the labor exigencies of the majority of the families affected.

If during the school year, on account of unforeseen labor conditions, it is deemed proper to utilize vacation periods for school work the teacher has the right to make this proposal to the educational director for his authorization. The suggestion shall then be brought before the royal inspector who shall order the necessary changes of the school calendar.

The teacher who has taught less than 140 days with a complete program shall have only a half year's service credited toward his seniority.

NEW PROVINCES

Article 16.—The above regulations are also applicable to the territories annexed by the laws of September 26, 1920, No. 1322, and December 19, 1920, No. 1778, with the modifications and additions contained in the following articles.

Article 17.—Beginning with the school year 1923-24 in all the first classes of the alloglot elementary schools, instruction shall be imparted in the Italian language.

Beginning with the school year 1924-25 instruction in the second classes of said schools shall be imparted in Italian.

In successive school years the same method shall be followed until, within a number of years equal to the entire course, instruction in all the elementary and civic schools shall be in Italian.

As the Italian language is being substituted for the present language of instruction, classes in the local language shall also be given in additional hours.

Article 18.—No teacher possessing a diploma or certificate awarded prior to the annexation of the provinces to the Kingdom may teach in the Italian language unless he possesses the prescribed qualifications.

No teacher, except in urgent cases, may teach in a language other than Italian unless he is regularly qualified.

Article 19.—In appointing instructors of the local and Italian languages for a given class, the qualified teachers of that class or those of the school shall be given preference.

Article 20.—The qualified teachers of a language other than Italian shall be appointed in preference to others, as teachers of Italian in the classes of the schools to which they belong, provided that they pass the necessary examinations in Italian, which shall be announced at the end of each school year by an ordinance of the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Similarly, teachers qualified to teach Italian shall be appointed by preference, to teach a local language in the classes of the schools to which they belong, provided that they pass the necessary examinations in the local language, which shall also be announced by an ordinance of the Ministry of Public Instruction at the end of each school year.

Article 21.—No civic school open at the time that the present decree goes into effect may be suppressed.

The civic schools reorganized as provided in the following article, must be supported by the organizations on which they depend and their degrees shall be equivalent to those of other schools, excepting the licence to the complementary schools, established by the Royal Decree of May 6, 1923, No. 1054.

Article 22.—Within three years from the publication of the present decree the organizations on which the civic schools depend, shall have completed the reorganization of these schools into complementary schools, in accordance with the Royal Decree of May 6, 1923, No. 1054, or into higher supplementary elementary schools for vocational training, in accordance with the present decree.

Article 23.—The special teachers possessing the group-qualification, obtained in accordance with the regulation of the former régime, are retained.

Elementary teachers possessing the degree required throughout the Kingdom for teaching in classes beyond the fifth grade shall be given equal opportunity.

Article 24.—No changes are made concerning compulsory attendance in the annexed provinces.

In schools in which the language of instruction is other than Italian, up to the time when Italian shall become the official language of instruction, in accordance with the present decree, instruction in the Italian language shall be compulsory for the pupils of all popular or citizen classes beginning with the second class of the elementary school.

Pupils cannot be promoted to a higher class if they fail to pass the examination in the Italian language.

Five hours of instruction in Italian weekly for the first three years, and six hours for the following years are required.

In schools where the double enrolment system is used, the hours of instruction shall be reduced one-half; in places where each period of instruction comprises two or more sections with different programs, the hours shall be limited to five for each period.

Article 25.—Instruction in the Italian language shall be given preferably by teachers not speaking another tongue; such teachers shall be entrusted to teach in various schools which for this purpose shall conveniently be grouped in educational districts in accordance with the recommendations made by the educational director and the royal school inspector and approved by the royal educational supervisor.

Teachers speaking languages other than Italian, who have passed the examination in the Italian language, shall be allowed to teach Italian in their classes or in other classes of the same school, on the proposal of the educational director and of the district inspector, provided that they obtain the authorization of the royal educational supervisor.

Article 26.—The present decree goes into force on the day of its publication in the *Gazzetta Ufficiale.*

Regulations for its application shall be issued by the Government within the school year 1923-1924.

Until the publication of the above mentioned regulations, the application of the various parts of the present decree shall be regulated by an ordinance of the Minister of Public Instruction.

APPENDIX D

ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Royal Decree, May 6, 1923, No. 1054

SECTION 1.—SCHOOLS IN GENERAL AND STATUS OF PRINCIPALS AND INSTRUCTORS

Article 1.—The secondary schools are divided into first and second grade.

The schools of the first grade are: the complementary school, the gymnasium, the lower course of the technical institute, and the lower course of the normal institute. The second grade schools are: the lyceum, the higher course of the technical institute, the higher course of the normal institute, the scientific lyceum, and the lyceum for girls.

Article 2.—No secondary school, except the complementary, may be established otherwise than by law. This does not include schools which have been converted into other types or which have become government institutions. Nor does this affect the normal institutes (Article 58 of the present decree), the scientific lyceums (Article 64), and the lyceums for girls (Article 69).

Article 3.—Instructors of secondary schools are appointed on the basis of competitive examinations in the order in which their names appear on the graded list; but in assigning an instructor to a school, special consideration shall be given to family exigencies.

Article 4.—The competitions are held either on the basis of degrees or on examinations, regardless of whether the appointments are for positions in important towns (special competitions) or for positions in the less important towns (general competitions).

However, positions in the smaller towns are sometimes filled by means of special competitions.

The regulation determines the most important posts.

Article 5.—These competitive examinations may be taken by Italian citizens and by non-resident Italians possessing the required degrees and all requirements prescribed in the regulation.

A royal decree shall specify the degrees necessary for admission to these examinations in the various subjects or groups of subjects.

Article 6.—The successful candidate in any examination shall, upon obtaining and accepting an appointment, assume the title of adjunct instructor.

The adjunct instructor is promoted to a full instructor after a probationary period of three years.

If during the probationary period his or her work is not satisfactory, the adjunct instructor is removed from service at the end of the three years or sooner.

The adjunct instructor who, as a result of an examination, passes from an institute of the first grade to an institute of the second grade, or from one institute to another of different type but of the same grade, or from one subject to another of the same institute, or from the lower course of the gymnasium to the higher course of the same gymnasium, completes in the last institute or in the new subject or in the higher course of the gymnasium the probationary period of three years.

In cases mentioned in the preceding paragraph the full instructor retains his title, and with regard to his salary he also retains his seniority; but his transfer becomes permanent after a trial of one year.

Article 7.—Appointments and transfers mentioned in the preceding article take effect on the first of October.

Article 8.—The adjunct and full instructors are classified in the various types of institutes and the different subjects into classes A, B, C, in accordance with table 1.

Article 9.—The salaries of the full and adjunct instructors are given in table 2. They shall also receive special compensation for study at the rate fixed in the same table. This special compensation is not to be computed in the pension.

From the time of his promotion to a full instructor, he receives four quadriennial and two quinquennial salary increases.

The full instructor who has distinguished himself by special merit, shall receive one increase in salary a year in advance of the regular time.

The mention for distinguished merit may be awarded each year, in each subject or in a group of subjects, in each type or grade of institutes, to not more than one-tenth of the instructors with the same number of years of service.

Article 10.—The name of the instructor who has obtained two advanced-salary increases for distinguished merit is entered on the corresponding Honor Roll referred to in the table, and his salary, in addition to the special compensation for study, is based on his seniority.

An instructor whose name has been entered on the Honor Roll but who has been censured or has received more serious punishment shall have his name returned to the ordinary roll and he shall receive the position and salary which he would have normally obtained.

Article 11.—Instructors are required to teach the subjects which have been fixed for each type and grade of institute in the classes indicated in the appended tables.

Except in cases mentioned in these tables, an instructor cannot teach other subjects either at his own institute nor at any other public or private secondary school.

Instructors are not allowed to give more than one hour's private lessons per day; they are not allowed to give private lessons to the pupils of their own school.

The practice of one of the liberal professions permitted by law may be stopped if the instructor devotes so much time to it as to distract him from the study of his own subject, or if it in any way interferes with his own or the school's reputation.

Article 12.—At the head of each school there is a principal who administers it with the assistance of the College of Instructors.

The principals are chosen by the Minister from among the full instructors, who possess a degree and who have held the title of full instructor for at least four years. Women are excluded from this selection.

The principals are divided into two classes; the principals of the "isolated" gymnasiums and of the complementary schools belong to the second class; all other principals belong to the first class.

The passage from one class to another is permitted in accordance with rules which shall be prescribed in the regulation.

Principals may, by request or by authority, be restored to the positions as instructors which they formerly held.

Article 13.—The salary and the periodic salary increases of principals are given in table 4.

The principal who returns to his former position, either by request or by authority, shall receive the salary which he would have received if he had remained in his original position.

Article 14.—Principals of lyceum-gymnasiums, technical institutes, and teachers' institutes are not allowed to teach.

Similarly, principals of other institutions, which for two years have had more than 250 pupils, are not allowed to teach.

A principal who is permitted to teach shall carry out his work in that line the same as an instructor.

Principals are not allowed to teach in any other institutions, nor give private lessons, nor exercise any free profession.

Article 15.—In addition to their salaries, principals receive special compensation varying in accordance with the school population, as stipulated in table 5.

Article 16.—Instructors and principals of government secondary schools are not allowed to hold any other permanent position given by the State or by any recognized organization (*ente morale*).

Article 17.—Transfers are granted on request or for reasons of service to instructors and principals.

In granting transfers to instructors at their request, the Minister shall consider family exigencies, and other things being equal, he shall also consider seniority.

In granting transfers to principals at their request, the Minister shall also take their merit into consideration.

Article 18.—Transfers are issued to principals and instructors for reasons of service when their further stay at the institute or city may harm the school, or whenever, in the case of a principal, his services are especially required elsewhere.

Article 19.—Appeals for transfers may be made to the Minister, who decides after hearing the opinion of the appropriate advisory commission of the Ministry. This decision is final.

Article 20.—Instructors and principals are retired from the first of October of the year in which they complete seventy years of age.

The Minister, after consulting the commission mentioned in Article 19, may discharge instructors and principals at any time if they are found physically, intellectually, or morally unfit for their school work.

Article 21.—Requests for leaves of absence by principals and instructors for authenticated reasons of health, are subject to the same regulations as govern other civil employees.

Between March 1 and July 31, no leaves of absence for family reasons, to go into effect before September 30, may be granted. Similarly, leaves of absence for family reasons granted at any time for a period longer than three months shall terminate on September 30.

The total days of absence for family reasons cannot exceed fifteen days, during the entire school year.

Article 22.—Instructors and principals may, according to the seriousness of the offence, be subjected to the following disciplinary punishments:

(1) Admonition.
(2) Censure.
(3) Loss of salary up to a month.
(4) Loss of salary and position up to a month.
(5) Loss of salary and position from one month to a year.
(6) Removal from office without loss of pension or grant.
(7) Removal from office with loss of pension or grant.

A principal who has received a more severe punishment than censure is automatically restored to the position which he formerly occupied.

Article 23.—For offences against official rules, which do not involve the honor and dignity of the instructor and principal and which do not constitute serious insubordination, the punishments mentioned in 1, 2, and 3 of the preceding article may be imposed, according to the individual case.

In cases of second offence by a person who has already been admonished, censure shall be administered, and for the repetition of offences for which censure has already been administered, the loss of salary and position up to a month as mentioned in section 4 of the preceding article may be imposed.

In cases of serious insubordination or bad conduct, or for offences involving the honor and dignity of the person concerned, disciplinary punishments may be inflicted, in accordance with the seriousness of the case and circumstances.

Article 24.—In the case of instructors, the punishments mentioned in numbers 1, and 2 of Article 21 are imposed by the principals or by the educational supervisors; in the case of principals, by the educational supervisors; the punishment mentioned in number 3 is imposed by the educational supervisor; all other punishments are imposed by the Minister who, in the case of punishments 5, 6, and 7 must consult the opinion of the commission referred to in Article 19.

Appeals against punishment number 3, when this is imposed by the educational supervisor, may be made to the Ministry who shall decide the matter after consulting the commission mentioned in Article 19.

Article 25.—Educational supervisors and principals may, in urgent and serious cases, prohibit an instructor from entering his school, providing the case is immediately referred to the Ministry.

Article 26.—Principals and instructors are subject to the same disciplinary regulations as other state civil employees insofar as these do not conflict with the dispositions mentioned in the present decree.

Article 27.—The principal has authority to appoint substitutes and assistants for all the permanent teaching positions. In making these appointments the principal shall take into consideration

the military service of the persons and the results which they have obtained in public competitive examinations for secondary school positions.

Appeals against decisions on substitute and assistant positions may be made to the educational supervisor whose decision is final.

Compensation for all substitutes and assistants is fixed in accordance with table 6.

In no case may the hours of the substitute or assistant exceed twenty-four hours of instruction per week.

Article 28.—No class shall have more than thirty-five pupils.

The number of complete courses and instructorships and, therefore, the number of permanent positions, is determined biennially in accordance with rules established for each type of school by a decree of the Minister of Public Instruction in harmony with that of the Minister of Finance.

The distribution of instructorships among the various institutes is determined by a decree of the Minister of Public Instruction.

Article 29.—Associated with each educational supervisor is a Board (*Giunta*) of Secondary Education, nominated by royal decree, and composed of the educational supervisor who is the president, of a university professor or some other literary or scientific expert, two secondary school principals and a full instructor of a secondary institute of the second grade.

The members of the Board hold office for four years and may be reappointed.

Article 30.—The secondary schools of military academies are governed by the regulations in force for the corresponding types of schools depending on the Ministry of Public Instruction. The directors of these colleges have the same powers as the principals of secondary schools.

Article 31.—Instructors for the military colleges are furnished to the Minister of War by the Minister of Public Instruction from among the instructors of the secondary schools and the number of permanent positions in the secondary schools are correspondingly increased.

Instructors for the military colleges may be chosen only from

among the permanent instructors who have passed special competitive examinations in their subjects and for the grade of institute to which they are to be assigned.

Throughout the entire period of their service in military colleges, the instructors referred to in the preceding paragraphs continue to be subject to the laws and regulations for secondary school personnel, depending on the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Article 32.—Instructors and principals of secondary schools depending on the Minister of Public Instruction, who are selected by the Minister of Foreign Affairs or the Minister of Colonies with the consent of the Ministry of Public Instruction, for their respective schools, shall in every way continue to belong to the original secondary school rolls of the Kingdom, which shall be increased by the number of positions thus created.

Article 33.—Twenty full instructors may each year be sent to foreign countries for postgraduate work in foreign languages. These persons shall receive, in addition to the regular salary, special compensation to be determined in each case in agreement with the Minister of Finance, taking into consideration the special conditions of the place of study and the time. Such missions may not be renewed for more than one year.

SECTION II: COMPLEMENTARY INSTRUCTION

Article 34.—Complementary instruction follows that of the elementary school and completes it. It is imparted in the complementary school.

Article 35.—The complementary school course lasts three years, and usually includes the following subjects: the Italian language, history and geography, mathematics, natural sciences, drawing, a foreign language, stenography, bookkeeping, penmanship.

An examination must also be passed in stenography.

Article 36.—No complementary school shall have more than twenty-four classes.

Article 37.—The formation of additional classes is permitted provided that they do not constitute a complete course.

A class may be divided only when the number of pupils exceeds that indicated in Article 28.

Article 38.—Table 7 establishes for each subject or group of subjects of the ordinary course the permanent instructorships, the subjects to be given by assistants, and the classes in which each full instructor must teach.

One or more full instructorships, in addition to that of the ordinary course, shall be established for each subject or group of subjects constituting one course, on the basis of the total number of hours of instruction given in that subject or group of subjects at the institute for at least two years and in accordance with the rules to be fixed in the regulation to be issued on the proposal of the Minister of Public Instruction in agreement with the Minister of Finance.

SECTION III: CLASSICAL INSTRUCTION

Article 39.—The object of classical instruction is to prepare students for the universities and higher institutes.

It consists of two grades: the first grade in the gymnasiums, the second in the lyceums.

Article 40.—The studies in the gymnasium last five years: the first three constitute the lower course; the last two, the higher.

The following subjects are taught in the lower course: the Italian and Latin languages; history and geography; mathematics; a foreign language beginning with the second year.

In the higher course the following subjects are taught: the Italian, Latin, and Greek languages, history and geography, mathematics, the same foreign language as in the lower course.

Article 41.—Instructorships in literary subjects in the higher course are awarded only on the basis of competitive examinations.

Article 42.—The lyceum lasts three years. The following subjects are taught: Italian, Latin, and Greek literatures; philosophy; history and political economy; mathematics and physics; natural sciences, chemistry, and geography; history of art.

Article 43.—Each lyceum-gymnasium usually has one complete course.

In only one-third of the lyceum-gymnasiums may there be instituted as many as four complete courses for the gymnasium, and three complete courses for the lyceum.

The establishment of classes in addition to the complete courses mentioned in the preceding paragraphs is not permitted.

Article 44.—Table 8 fixes the number of instructorships to be instituted for the various subjects or group of subjects, in each lyceum-gymnasium, in "isolated" lyceums, and in "isolated" gymnasiums, the subjects to be imparted by assistants, and the classes in which each permanent instructor shall teach.

Each lyceum-gymnasium or 'isolated" gymnasium has a mechanic in the service of the scientific departments. The salaries of the mechanics are fixed in accordance with table 17.

SECTION IV: TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION

Article 45.—The object of technical instruction is to prepare students for the practice of certain professions. It is imparted in technical institutes.

Article 46.—The course in the technical institute lasts eight years.

The first four constitute the lower course, the last four the higher course.

Article 47.—The following subjects are taught in the lower course: the Italian and Latin languages; history and geography; mathematics; drawing; a foreign language; stenography.

An examination in stenography must be passed.

Article 48.—The higher course may consist of a Section of Commerce and Accountancy and the Section of Land Surveying or of only one of these sections.

Article 49.—The Section of Commerce and Accountancy prepares for administrative and commercial positions.

The following subjects are taught: Italian literature and history; mathematics and physics; natural sciences and geography; two foreign languages; bookkeeping and accountancy; law; political economy, science of finance and statistics; commercial chemistry; penmanship.

Article 50.—The Section of Land Surveying prepares for the profession of surveyor.

The following subjects are taught: Italian literature and his-

tory; mathematics and physics; natural sciences and geography; agriculture, rural bookkeeping, estimates and rural technology; construction and drawing; topography and topographical drawing; chemistry; rural legislation; drawing.

Article 51.—Each technical institute usually has one complete course in the first four years and in each section of the higher four years.

In not more than one-third of the technical institutes may there be established as many as three complete courses for the first four years and for the Section of Commerce and Accountancy.

The formation of classes in addition to the complete courses is not allowed.

Article 52.—Table 9 establishes, for each technical institute, the number of full instructorships for each subject or group of subjects, the subjects to be given by assistants, and the classes in which each full instructor shall teach.

SECTION V: NORMAL INSTRUCTION

Article 53.—The object of normal instruction is to prepare teachers for positions in the elementary schools.

The duration of the course in the normal institute is seven years; the first four constitute the lower course; the last three the higher.

Article 54.—The following subjects are taught in the lower course: the Italian and Latin languages; history and geography beginning with the second year; mathematics; a foreign language; drawing; elements of music and singing; study of a musical instrument.

Article 55.—In the higher course the following subjects are taught: the Italian language and literature; the Latin language and literature; history, philosophy and pedagogy; mathematics and physics; natural sciences, geography and hygiene; drawing; elements of music and singing; study of a musical instrument.

Article 56.—Each normal institute has two complete courses for the first four years, but only one course for the last three years. In not more than forty institutes may there be established

a third complete course in the first four years, and a second complete course in the last three years.

In towns where there is a lyceum for girls, the formation of a fourth complete course in the first four years of the normal institute and a third complete course for the last three years is permitted.

The establishment of classes in addition to the complete courses is not allowed.

Article 57.—Each normal institute has annexed a kindergarten or a nursery.

Article 58.—The teachers' institutes are listed in table 10. The location of these institutes may be changed by royal decree but the total number cannot be changed.

Article 59.—Table 11 establishes the number of instructorships in each normal institute for the different subjects or group of subjects, the subjects to be imparted by assistants, and the classes in which each full instructor shall teach.

SECTION VI: SCIENTIFIC LYCEUMS

Article 60.—The object of the scientific lyceums is to develop and broaden the education of those who intend to go on with university studies in the Faculty of Sciences and in the Faculty of Medicine and Surgery, with special emphasis on scientific culture.

Article 61.—The duration of the course in the scientific lyceum is four years. Each scientific lyceum may have as many as three courses. The formation of classes in addition to the complete courses is not allowed.

Article 62.—The following subjects are taught in the scientific lyceum: the Italian and Latin literatures; history, philosophy, and political economy; mathematics and physics; natural sciences, chemistry, and geography; a foreign language and literature; drawing.

Article 63.—Table 12 fixes the number of instructorships in each scientific lyceum for each subject or group of subjects, the subjects to be given by assistants, and the classes in which each full instructor shall teach.

Article 64.—The establishment of royal scientific institutes may be provided for by a royal decree to be issued on the proposal of the Minister of Public Instruction in agreement with the Minister of Finance.

SECTION VII: LYCEUMS FOR GIRLS

Article 65.—The object of the lyceums for girls is to supplement the general culture of young girls who do not intend to continue with higher studies nor expect to obtain a professional diploma.

Article 66.—The lyceum for girls lasts three years. Each female lyceum cannot have more than two complete courses. The formation of classes in addition to the complete courses is not allowed.

Article 67.—The following subjects are taught in the lyceum for girls: the Italian and Latin languages and literatures; history and geography; philosophy, law and political economy; two foreign languages, one of which is compulsory and the other elective; history of art; drawing; household arts and domestic economy; music and singing; a musical instrument; dancing.

Article 68.—Table 13 fixes the number of instructorships in each girls' lyceum for each subject or group of subjects, the subjects to be given by assistants, and the classes in which each full instructor shall teach.

Article 69.—The establishment by royal decree of not more than twenty royal lyceums for girls in the entire Kingdom is authorized.

SECTION VIII: EXAMINATIONS AND STUDENTS

Article 70.—The school year begins on October 16 and ends on June 30; courses are held daily except on holidays and twelve other days appointed for vacation.

Article 71.—The secondary school examinations are entrance, proficiency, promotion, licence, qualifying, and maturity.

The entrance examination admits pupils to the first class of the secondary schools of the first and second grade and to the fourth class of the gymnasium.

The proficiency examination admits pupils from unaccredited public schools or from private or tutorial schools to classes for which there is no entrance examination.

The promotion examination is held only in cases specified in Article 83.

The licence examination is taken at the completion of the complementary school course and the girls' lyceum; no pupil may be exempted.

The qualifying examination is taken at the end of the course in normal and technical institutes.

The maturity examination admits students to the universities and higher institutes, excepting the higher normal institutes.

Article 72.—The same entrance examination is given for admission to the gymnasium, the lower course of the technical institute, or the lower course of the teachers' institute; a separate examination is given for admission to the complementary school.

Students desiring to take the examinations mentioned in the preceding paragraph must be at least ten years of age.

Article 73.—A student admitted to the lower grade as many years previously as would be necessary for the completion of the normal course of studies, may be admitted to a different entrance examination from that required for the first class of the secondary school of the first grade.

The candidate for the entrance examination to the scientific lyceum or to the lyceum for girls shall have gained admission to a first grade secondary school at least four years previously.

A student from a non-government unaccredited school, who has obtained entrance to the gymnasium at least five years previously, may apply for admission to the lyceum without having obtained admission to the fourth course of the gymnasium.

Article 74.—Students who have been admitted to a school of the second grade as many years previously as are required for the normal course of studies may present themselves for the maturity examination.

Students who have completed twenty-three years of age may present themselves for the maturity examination without having taken an entrance examination.

Article 75.—The interval between two entrance examinations or between the entrance examination to the second grade school and the maturity examination or the licence examination of the lyceum for girls may be reduced by one year for each grade of school on account of special conditions of age and proficiency of the student.

Article 76.—Students from royal or accredited schools pass from a lower to a higher class, for which no entrance examination is prescribed, by *promotion* from the class immediately below, on the basis of the result of a collegiate ballot at the end of the course, except as provided for in Article 83; students from an unaccredited public, private, or tutorial school pass from one class to a higher by a proficiency examination to which they may present themselves provided that they have obtained admission to the first class of the school of the same grade as that to which they seek admission, as many years previously as are required for the completion of the normal course of studies.

Article 77.—Students from a royal or accredited complementary school and from the girls' lyceum shall take a licence examination at the end of the third year. Students from an unaccredited public, private, or tutorial school who have been admitted to the first class of the same schools at least three years previously are likewise admitted to the licence examination.

Article 78.—Examinations are held after June 30. The tests mentioned in Article 83 are normally held during the first ten days of October.

Article 79.—The result of the examination of each subject or of a group of similar subjects, is expressed in tenths.

The proficiency and conduct of the student during the current year are similarly expressed.

Article 80.—At the end of every two months and again at the end of the course the College of Instructors determines the proficiency and conduct grades of the students.

Article 81.—The passing grade in each subject or in each group of similar subjects in the entrance, proficiency, licence, qualifying, and maturity examinations is six-tenths or more.

Article 82.—Students who in the final ballot have obtained a grade of not less than six-tenths in each subject or in each group of similar subjects, and eight-tenths in conduct are entitled to promotion.

Article 83.—Students who in the final ballot for promotion or in any July examination have obtained less than six-tenths in not more than two subjects or group of subjects, or those who have not been able to begin or complete the written examination or present themselves for the oral tests in July, are permitted to take corresponding examinations in the autumn.

Article 84.—The same class at a government or accredited school may be repeated only once.

Article 85.—The examination programs are determined by the same royal decree which establishes the hours of instruction.

Article 86.—All royal and accredited schools shall give the entrance, proficiency, promotion, and licence examinations.

Article 87.—The commission for the entrance, proficiency, and licence examinations is presided over by the principal of the school in which the examination is held; it is composed of:

(1) for the entrance examination: the school instructors of the type and grade to which the candidates seek admission; a public elementary school teacher for entrance to the school of the first grade; for other admissions, a school teacher of the type and grade wherein the candidates have been prepared.

(2) for the proficiency examination: instructors of the class to which the candidate seeks admission.

(3) for the licence examination: instructors of the school proper.

The members of the entrance examination commissions are appointed by the educational supervisor; those of the proficiency and licence examinations are appointed by the principal.

Article 88.—The centers for the qualifying examinations are:

(1) for admission to the professions taught at the technical institute: the chief cities of provinces.

(2) for the elementary teachers' examinations: cities wherein are located the educational supervisors.

Article 89.—Each qualifying examination commission referred to under (1) in the preceding article is composed of instructors of the technical institute from other provinces and of two experts in the profession to which the candidate seeks admission. It is presided over by the oldest instructor.

Each qualifying examination commission referred to under (2) of the preceding article is composed of instructors of normal institutes, a university professor who presides, and an educational director.

Article 90.—The commissions mentioned in the preceding article are appointed by the Minister on the proposal of the educational supervisors and must be reappointed each year.

Article 91.—The maturity examinations for students from the classical lyceum shall be held in forty cities which shall be indicated in the regulation; the maturity examination for students from the scientific lyceum, in not more than twenty cities. There may be more than one commission in the same city.

Article 92.—Each maturity examination commission is composed of:

(1) instructors of second grade schools (at least two-thirds).

(2) university professors or free docents (not more than one-third).

In addition to the above-named members, this commission shall also include a teacher from a private school or a person not connected with education.

The maturity commissions are nominated by the Minister. In case the examinations are to be held in the very near future, the educational supervisor shall appoint substitutes for the members of the commission who for any reason are unable to be present at the examinations.

Members are not allowed to vote on the candidates whom they have privately or publicly instructed.

Article 93.—A regulation shall fix the amount of, and the conditions under which, compensation shall be paid to members of the qualifying and maturity examination commissions, and to elementary teachers serving on entrance examination commissions.

The regulation shall be issued on the proposal of the Ministry of Public Instruction in agreement with that of the Ministry of Finance. Members of the commission shall also be reimbursed for traveling expenses.

Article 94.—Candidates for the entrance examinations to a second grade school or for the qualifying or maturity examinations must show their last year's reports; candidates from private or tutorial schools must present a certificate showing what studies they have completed.

The list of institutes with the best results obtained in the examinations by their pupils shall be published yearly in the *Bollettino Ufficiale.*

Article 95.—The successful candidates in the promotion, proficiency, and entrance examinations may continue their studies in any government or accredited institute.

Article 96.—The school fees are indicated in table 14.

In the case of poor students a royal decree issued on the proposal of the ministries of Public Instruction and Finance shall fix the conditions under which they may be totally or partially exempted from the payment of fees.

SECTION IX: CLERICAL PERSONNEL, ASSISTANTS, MECHANICS AND JANITORS:

Text Omitted

SECTION X: SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

Article 103.—The provinces shall provide the school buildings for technical institutes and scientific lyceums and shall keep them in a good condition; the municipalities shall provide the school buildings for all other types of secondary schools and shall keep them in good condition. Both provinces and municipalities shall also provide the money for furnishing, lighting, and heating the buildings and for office expenditures; and in the case of the technical institutes and scientific lyceums they shall also provide the educational and scientific equipment.

The educational and scientific equipment for all other types of schools shall be provided by the State.

The municipalities shall also provide for the maintenance, lighting, and heating of the gymnasiums and stadiums belonging to the National Organization for Physical Education (Ente Nazionale per l'Educazione Fisica).

Article 104.—The organizations which are obliged, in accordance with the preceding article, to provide for the construction and repairs of school buildings shall receive larger state grants which shall be distributed to the municipalities for the construction of elementary school buildings.

SECTION XI: ACCREDITED INSTITUTES

Article 105.—The courses of study in secondary schools, except the teachers' institutes, supported by recognized organizations (*Enti*), may be accredited in the same manner as those of the government schools.

Article 106.—Appointments and promotions of teachers of accredited secondary schools are made in accordance with the regulations in force for the corresponding government schools.

With reference to appointments, organizations may dispense with competitive examinations if the teachers to be appointed already hold permanent positions in the same subject or group of subjects in royal or accredited schools of the same type and grade or if their names are included in the lists of successful candidates in competitive examinations for the same positions but who are waiting for appointment.

Article 107.—Permanent instructors who are transferred from one accredited school to another of the same type and grade shall retain all the rights that have been acquired.

A teacher of an accredited school who is promoted to an instructorship in a government school shall, with regard to pension, receive credit for the period of service at the government school and that at the school supported by an organization. In such cases the payment of the pension shall be made by the organization and the State in accordance with Article 48 of the Law of February 21, 1895, No. 70.

Article 108.—The appointment of a principal of an accredited secondary school is made on the basis of the degrees held by the full instructors of the school who have had at least seven years'

of permanent service in the government or accredited schools. During the first seven years following the accreditation of the school, the appointment of acting director is made every year from among the teachers of the school holding a degree.

Appointment to the position of principal may be made in the case of a person holding the same position in another accredited school of the same type and grade, without a competitive examination.

Article 109.—Principals and teachers of accredited secondary schools are subject to the punishments established in articles 22, 23, 24, 25, and 26 of the present decree.

Article 110.—In case an accredited secondary school is to be converted into a government school, the regulation to be issued on the proposal of the Minister of Public Instruction in agreement with the Minister of Finance, shall determine the conditions under which the administrative and teaching personnel of the school shall be taken over by the State.

Article 111.—Should an accredited secondary school be suppressed, the permanent instructors of the school proper shall have, regardless of age, the right to compete for instructorships in government schools for which they hold legal qualifications.

Article 112.—Teachers of accredited secondary schools who, as a result of competitive examination or conversion of the school into a government institution, are transferred to the service of the State are subject to the probationary period as established in the regulations of Article 6 of the present decree.

SECTION XII: PRIVATE INSTITUTES

Article 113.—Any citizen who has completed thirty years of age and who possesses the necessary moral qualifications is permitted to open to the public a private secondary institute with or without board provided that the following conditions are observed:

(1) That the teachers shall possess the qualifications necessary to teach in a government secondary school, or their equivalent.

(2) That the subjects are taught in accordance with the program contained in the public announcement on the opening of the institute. Modifications of the above mentioned program must be similarly announced.

(3) That the institute shall alway be opened to the educational supervisor and to any other person appointed by the Ministry to inspect it.

(4) That physical education is given in conformity with the rules established for the pupils of government secondary schools.

Article 114.—Persons who wish to avail themselves of the privilege mentioned in the preceding article shall make a written request to the educational supervisor three months before the classes start.

The request must be accompanied by the program of studies, the names of the instructors with the degrees held, and a plan of the building to be used by the institute.

The supervisor after studying the documents shall ascertain through careful investigation whether the quarters are suitable and shall obtain all the necessary information concerning the moral qualifications of the person making the request.

The institute may be opened if the supervisor, within two months from the time the request was made, has not officially communicated any objections to the person making the request; the institute cannot be closed if maintained in the conditions mentioned in the preceding article except for serious causes involving the dignity and social public order of the State, or if the health of the students is imperiled.

If, however, the institute is not opened within six months from the day in which it could open, in accordance with this article, the request shall be considered void.

Article 115.—The reasons for opposing the opening of an institute may at the request of the applicant, be submitted to the Board of Secondary Education.

The reasons necessitating the closing of these institutes must always be submitted to the Board.

In any case, the school may be closed only by a ministerial decree.

Article 116.—In urgent cases, the educational supervisor may take steps to close a private institute temporarily. The conditions stipulated in the preceding article must be carried out.

Article 117.—Secondary schools and courses that are opened without fulfilling the requirements mentioned in articles 113 and

114 are automatically closed and the responsible persons are subject to a fine varying from one thousand to five thousand lire. Those subject to a second offence may, in addition to the fine, be imprisoned for from six days to three months.

Articles 118 to 141 on national boarding schools are omitted.

GENERAL AND FINAL REGULATIONS

Article 142.—With reference to the internal organization of the institutes in the new provinces, the Minister of Public Instruction is authorized to bring about such changes as may be necessary on account of the difference in the language of instruction. However, the number of instructorships in each institute and the salary of instructors cannot be modified.

Article 143.—The Secondary School boards referred to in Article 29 shall, beginning with July 1, 1923, replace the present Provincial Secondary School boards.

Article 144.—The regulations concerning the salaries of principals and instructors, the permanent personnel, the appointment of substitutes and assistants, the organization of schools, the inability of principals and instructors to hold other positions, and leaves of absence for family reasons, shall go into effect on October 1, 1923.

The regulations concerning examinations and the exemption of principals from teaching, and the table on school fees shall go into effect at the beginning of the school year 1923-1924; the regulation referred to in Article 120 shall go into effect on January 1, 1924.

Article 145.—The laws of July 12, 1896, No. 293; April 8, 1906, No. 141; April 8, 1906, No. 142; July 16, 1914, No. 679; and December 22, 1921, No. 2057, are repealed, with the exception of the regulations concerning the Secondary Education Section of the Board of Higher Council insofar as they are not in conflict with the present decree.

Similarly, any other regulation contrary to the present decree is repealed.

Article 146.—Another decree shall prescribe the temporary regulations to bring about the passage from the old to the new administration.

NOTE: The significant tables following this decree are given in the text.

APPENDIX E

APPROVAL OF HOURS AND PROGRAMS OF ROYAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Royal Decree, October 14, 1923, No. 2345

Article 1.—The hours and programs of examinations appended to the present decree and signed at our request by the Minister making the proposal are approved.

Article 2.—The programs fix the hours of compulsory instruction in each subject and class of the government institutes of secondary education depending on the Minister of Public Instruction.

The programs establish the subject matter of entrance, licence, qualifying, and maturity examinations, as provided for in Section 8 of the Royal Decree of May 6, 1923, No. 1054.

Article 3.—In each institute, at the end of the school year and not later than June 30, the College of Instructors shall vote on the adoption of text-books proposed by the instructor of the class and subject, and shall also establish in the case of each subject the section of the programs to be treated in each class, arranging the work in such a manner that at the end of the course the pupils will be ready to take the prescribed examination.

In the selection of text-books the proposals made by the instructor shall be approved by the College if they receive a one-third votes.

Article 4.—In the case of biennial courses the decision referred to in the first paragraph of the preceding article shall affect the division of the subject during the two years; in triennial and quadriennial courses the decision shall apply to all the three and four year subjects respectively.

But if the instructor of the course is changed and on the written request of the new instructor, the College may decide on a

new division of that part of the program which has not yet been treated.

Article 5.—Classical text-books may be changed from year to year.

The manuals selected shall be used for the entire two, three, or four years, according to the duration of the course.

Article 6.—A different division of the program in parallel courses of the same institute and in those subjects taught by the same instructor in both courses is not permitted.

The use of different classical texts even when the parallel courses are given by the same instructor is permitted.

Article 7.—The instructor who objects to the decisions referred to in articles 3 and 4 of the present decree may, if the objection affects his subject of instruction, appeal to the Minister who shall express his final decision after hearing the Superior Council of Public Instruction.

The appeal does not suspend the decision.

Article 8.—The list of text-books and the division of the program for the following school year shall be made public by posting them in the bulletin of the institute, not later than July 15 of each year and by publishing them in the year-book of the institute proper.

Article 9.—The promotion examinations in each institute shall be based on the programs of instruction published as mentioned in the preceding article.

The entrance (*idoneità*) examination shall also be based on the programs presented by the candidates provided that the principal, after hearing the opinion of a competent instructor of the subject, shall judge them equivalent to those of his institute.

This decision cannot be appealed but the Minister may order an investigation.

Article 10.—For purposes mentioned in the second paragraph of the preceding article, the candidates shall present with his entrance application the program of studies pursued.

The list of candidates admitted to the examination shall be published in the bulletin of the institute and the accepted programs

shall be deposited at the office of the secretary of the institute proper, so as to be available to the public.

Article 11.—For examinations other than promotion and entrance, the candidates shall present a written statement containing the list of books read and the subject chosen, wherever the programs appended to the present decree, allow for such selection.

The statement referred to in the preceding paragraph shall, in the case of students from a royal or accredited secondary school, be approved by the instructor who taught them in the year preceding the examination.

For the licence examination the principal of the institute, and in all other cases, the president of the examination commission, shall determine whether the lists are acceptable and whether the candidate may be admitted.

MISCELLANEOUS REGULATIONS:

Article 12.—For the school year 1923-24 the work referred to in Article 3 of the present decree shall be completed before November 15, 1923.

Article 13.—In case the College of Instructors should decide to continue using the same manuals as those used during the school year 1923-24 for the courses lasting more than one year, the use of these manuals may be authorized for the last years of the course, beginning with the school year 1924-25.

Article 14.—For examinations other than promotion and entrance examinations, which shall be held during the school years mentioned in Appendix C, the program of the subjects indicated in that table and actually studied may be presented.

In the case of candidates from a government or accredited school said programs shall be considered satisfactory.

The examination commission shall determine whether the entrance programs, completed by other candidates, are satisfactory by comparing these programs with those of the government or accredited schools.

Article 15.—In the case of subjects added to the programs under the new organization, the examination commission shall take into account the fact that instruction in these subjects shall begin with

the school year 1923-24 in all classes of the institute, in accordance with the program which shall be fixed by the College of Instructors for the first year course; in the succeeding years, therefore, the committee shall require that candidates shall have pursued the study of these subjects for as many school years as have elapsed since 1923-24, until the prescribed program has been covered.

Article 16.—Students from the suppressed sections of the modern gymnasium and lyceum and registered in the lyceum-gymnasium in accordance with Article 2 of the Royal Decree, March 11, 1923, No. 564, shall have the number of hours of the fifth gymnasium course and the first and second lyceum course decreased by the hours assigned to the study of Greek. In the program of the third lyceum course beginning with 1923-24 and not later than 1926-27 the two hours of Greek culture as mentioned in Article 2 of the above mentioned decree shall take the place of the three weekly hours of Greek.

The program of the maturity examination for the above mentioned students shall substitute Greek culture for Greek as approved by the Royal Decree of November 11, 1904, No. 657. All other examinations shall be given in accordance with the regular programs.

Article 17.—In the case of students registered in the remaining classes of the suppressed physico-mathematical sections of the technical institutes according to the regulation of Article 38 of the Royal Decree of June 26, 1923, the hours established by the Royal Decree of October 2, 1891, No. 622, shall remain in force and the examinations at the end of each course shall be given in accordance with the programs established by that decree.

Article 18.—In the case of students registered in the remaining classes of the suppressed normal schools in accordance with the regulation of Article 36 of the Royal Decree of June 26, 1923, No. 1413, the regulations concerning the hours and programs of the normal institutes shall remain in force.

NOTE: Here follow the programs of studies and the content of each type of examination for each type of secondary school. The programs of studies are included in the text.

APPENDIX F

TEXT-BOOKS

Royal Decree, March 11, 1923, No. 737

Article 1.—No text-books may be used in public or private elementary and popular schools that have not been included in the "official text-book list" or in the periodical supplements of the list which shall be published in the *Bollettino Ufficiale* under the supervision of the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Article 2.—Publishers or authors who intend to introduce their text-books in the elementary and popular schools must make a written request on a formal blank to the royal educational supervisor of the region in which they reside, unless the text-books are for the special use of the schools in a definite region, in which case the request shall be made to the educational supervisor of that region.

The request must be accompanied by:

(1) Five printed copies or clearly printed galleys of each text.

(2) The receipt of the payment of the fee of seventy-five lire for each volume to be used in the first two elementary classes; one hundred lire for any other volume.

Article 3.—The same text-book may be presented only to one educational supervisor.

Article 4.—The following books are excluded from the examination:

(1) Text-books compiled by a group of teachers, educational directors or inspectors.

(2) Books published anonymously or under a pseudonym.

(3) Books edited by an association of authors who are in any way connected with education or with the administration of schools.

However, books that have won prizes and those prepared under the auspices of recognized organizations which shall distribute them free of charge among the pupils of their schools may be presented for examination regardless of the positions held by the compilers or editors and regardless of whether the authors are anonymous or pseudonymous.

Article 5.—The royal educational supervisor, in harmony with the opinion expressed by an appropriate commission to be appointed in accordance with rules to be issued with a decree of the Minister of Public Instruction, shall approve or reject the text-books, explaining the reasons for this action in a brief report which shall be published with the list mentioned in Article 1.

A list of the text-books that have been approved shall be communicated to the Minister of Public Instruction for the object stipulated in Article 1 of this decree.

Article 6.—The action referred to in Article 5 above, shall apply to the text-books in all the elementary and popular schools of the Kingdom, unless the action refers to a book to be used only in one region.

Article 7.—In case a book has not been approved the royal educational supervisor shall, in an official communication, notify the author or publisher who signed the request mentioned in Article 2 of this decree.

Article 8.—Appeals against the decision of the royal educational supervisor may be made to the Ministry of Public Instruction within thirty days from the date of the official notification as mentioned in Article 7.

Article 9.—The commission mentioned in Article 5 above shall receive fifty lire for each volume examined, to be divided in accordance with a decree of the Minister of Public Instruction on the proposal of the royal educational supervisor who presides over the commission.

Members of the above mentioned commission who do not reside in the same city as the educational supervisor, shall, in addition, receive a daily salary and traveling expenses.

Article 10.—The regulation for the execution of the present decree to be issued in agreement with that of the Minister of

Finance shall establish the method for payment of the fee mentioned in Article 2 above.

Article 11.—All regulations on the subject of text-books for elementary and popular schools contrary to those contained in the present decree are repealed.

Article 12.—The approval of text-books for the school years 1923-1924 and 1924-25 is left to the Minister of Public Instruction on the proposal of an appropriate commission to be nominated by a decree of the Minister of Public Instruction.

The above mentioned commission shall receive the daily salary and compensation referred to in the preceding Article 9.

Appeals against the decision of the Ministry may be made to the Fourth Section of the Council of State for violations of law and usurpation of powers.

Texts now in use may continue to be used without examination for a period of three years from the time that the various schools adopted them in accordance with the regular rules established by the Decree of June 17, 1915, No. 897.

Article 13.—The present decree goes into effect on the day of its publication.

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